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ABSTRACT

Approaches which recognize the inadequacy of many existing faculty preparation programs, while facilitating role and career transition of new faculty members are needed by today's 2-year colleges. Recognizing these facts, this monograph looks at the orientation program as one solution. Recent research on faculty background in terms of occupational and teaching experiences, occupational attitudes, and academic credentials reveals the great variation at both the state and national level. This variation, when considered with the diverse recruiting methods and environments, adds immediacy to the need for programs that can begin the unification process and obtain support for each institution's locally prescribed mission. A review of orientation programs in California, Michigan, and New York characterizes recent approaches to this situation. Related research on the planning, conduct, and activities of individual programs, as well as their regional distribution, offer additional insight. Characteristics of existing programs that appear important include participation of incumbent faculty members, and introduction to real problems faced by each institution. After considering this research, a model for a new orientation program is suggested, including discussion of goals, planning, duration, actual conduct, and evaluation. The concluding section investigates future circumstances which should be considered in developing orientation programs. (JO)

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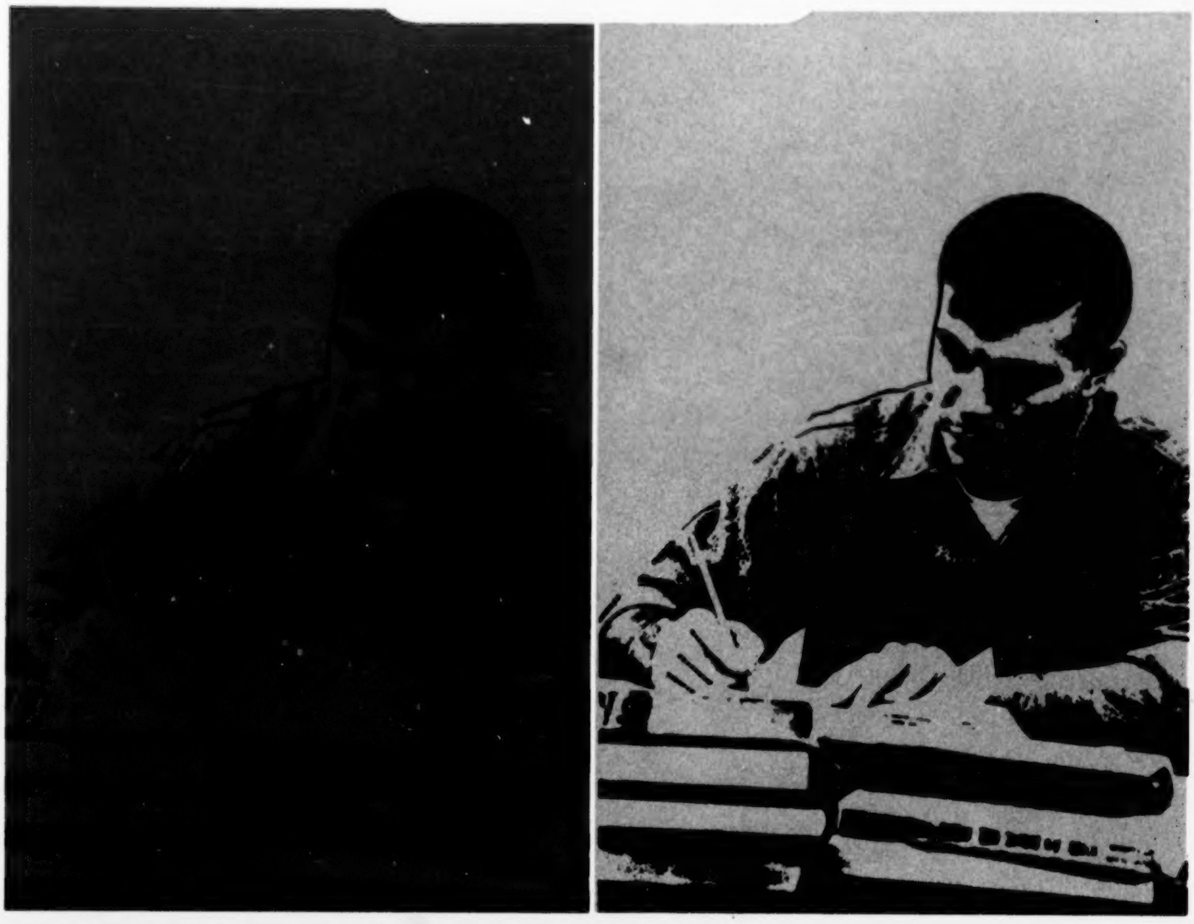

ORIENTATION FOR FACULTY IN JUNIOR COLLEGES

By M. Frances Kelly and John Connolly

JC 700 226

UNIVERSITY OF CALIF.
LOS ANGELES

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This monograph was prepared for the ERIC Clearinghouse for Junior College Information by M. Frances Kelly and John J. Connolly. Dr. Kelly is presently on leave from the Department of Higher Education, State University of New York at Buffalo, and has joined the Division of College Support, U.S. Office of Education, as a junior college specialist. John Connolly is now Dean of Harford Junior College, Bel Air, Maryland.

Our sincere appreciation is extended to the authors for their meaningful contribution to the literature on the junior college.

Arthur M. Cohen
Director
ERIC Clearinghouse for Junior College Information

FOREWORD

Orientation is a map-user's word: it means lining up a map in proper relationship to the ground features that it represents. A disoriented map, as any woodsman can tell you, will not help you get from where you are to where you want to be — it will just get you lost.

"Orientation" for junior college faculty, as this monograph ably points out, is more complicated and important than a routine one-day introduction of new teachers to the administrative rhetoric and clerical confusions of a particular institution. It is — or rather it should be, in the author's words — "a mechanism . . . for socializing entrants into junior college teaching . . . and (part of) a framework of junior college teacher preparation."

With few exceptions, most newly employed junior college faculty have a surprisingly casual introduction into their new professional situations. They may be given a map of their new territory, but they are rarely helped, in any detail, to see its relationships to the complicated educational terrain it is supposed to represent. In fact, on most campuses, one of the most notable facts which even a casual interviewer of faculty will discover is that veteran teachers also are apt to be fuzzy or confused about the aims and educational services of their own institutions. And new teachers consistently report that, for at least their first semester, they are "lost" as far as having any realistic awareness of the nature of their students, of the "standards" (or expectations) of their college, of the community matrix in which the college operates, and of the extent to which individual faculty members might help and/or guide the college's development.

Part of the problem of poor or insufficient orientation lies with a basic and usually unstated administrative assumption that faculty traditionally are too exclusively hired *as teachers of subjects* and are not considered often enough *as functioning members of developing and changing institutions.* Orientation which does not make a continuing effort to help teachers see beyond their subject obligations; see beyond their students' immediate needs, deficiencies, and problems; or see the college as a *social* phenomenon of special importance in a particular community is likely to be not only perfunctory but possibly even an addition to confusion.

We are beginning to recognize (and this monograph emphasizes indirectly) that fully adequate orientation programs are long-term affairs, and that they need to be considered as "in-service" functions for all faculty and not merely as beginning-of-college introductions for newly hired people. Ideally, orientation for new teachers should begin with thorough, detailed, *pre*-employment procedures, starting with the first contact letter or interview and carrying on systematically through at least the first semester in the new institution, with regular attention given to the whole range of situations which any new teacher meets. Veteran faculty, too, should participate in this process, since *refreshed* attention to institutional aims and problems will give them a needed *re*-orientation.

For administrators, and others who may have responsibilities in the induction of faculty into teaching in a junior college, this brief monograph provides a perspective on some current practices and many useful ideas for developing effective and workable orientation programs. This is the sort of interim action research which junior colleges badly need in order to determine, in many areas, where they are and where they are going.

This is, after all, what "orientation" is all about.

Roger H. Garrison
Westbrook College
Portland, Maine

A RATIONALE FOR ORIENTATION

chapter 1

It comes as no surprise to those of us who have witnessed the growth of the community-junior college that a considerable number of the new faculty members have had no previous experience in teaching. Nor can we ignore the range of occupational mix that new faculty represent. While a diversity of occupational background may serve to enrich an otherwise sterile and myopic perspective, such mix also increases the personal frustration of certain candidates and reinforces some of the confusion they might have about the junior college.

The process of orienting recent candidates to their faculty role and their institutional work-environment has received much attention in the last seven years.* It is difficult, however, to find appropriate material on the extent of orientation programs, their content, or their effectiveness.

PURPOSES

This monograph has four specific goals: (1) to establish a rationale for the existence of orientation programs; (2) to present a comprehensible prototype for orientation as both a binding mechanism and a technique for socializing entrants into junior college teaching; (3) to provide current data on orientation procedures used throughout the country's junior-community colleges and technical institutions — both public and private; and (4) to offer a means of placing orientation programs beyond the present frame of reference and into a framework of junior college teacher preparation. Numerous studies, reports, and dissertations have been combed in an effort to put orientation in a comprehensible perspective. In several instances the authors of as yet unpublished works have generously provided further documentation.

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* In 1963, Michigan State University, in cooperation with the American Association of Junior Colleges, published a report on *Problems of New Faculty Members in Community Colleges* (Siehr, 50). We believe a line of interest in orientation can be drawn from this study.

Roger Garrison, during this decade, has focused national attention on the plight of the two-year college teacher:

> The faculty of a comprehensive junior college is . . . a mix seeking to be an amalgam. Put together instructors from a land-grant college, a few from an ivy league, liberal arts institution, some from professional schools, skilled journeymen, technicians who are engineers-once-removed, green graduate students fresh from exposure to the guild, retired military men seeking a second career, and high school teachers looking for some pasture in higher education, and you would have at least a raggedly accurate profile (18).

Others have substantiated the allegation that the community-junior college is "an institution where a heterogeneous student body meets a heterogeneous faculty" (3:31). The occupational mix of entrants, with their attendant preconceptions of the junior college and the paucity of professional preparation programs for them, creates a vacuum that only orientation can hope to fill.

The goals of the community-junior college are undergoing continuous redefinition. Although the "mission" is relatively clear to the national leadership, the specific goals are being argued among junior college faculty. (Almost fifty years ago, Leonard V. Koos (27) identified twenty-one purposes for the junior college, which were, he felt, more often accepted in the rhetoric than demonstrated in college catalogs.) There is a need to promote discussion among colleagues, especially new faculty, and we need to ask: To what extent is orientation instrumental in establishing local attachments and promoting a general understanding of the two-year college?

Selected orientation models have been explored in the preparation of this monograph. There has been no attempt to supplant local orientation procedures, but there is a clear indication that commonalities of understanding can be presented to new faculty who, for the most part, have had little pre-job opportunity to understand the special dimensions of their new environment, the nature of the student body, or the various demands of their teaching-advising role. Further, we are aware of the vague separation between orientation as a socializing, binding process and indoctrination as a proselytizing technique. Brawer notes: "If a school represents a definite point of view, it would seem to be most important to find teachers who already fit its philosophy rather than expect to mold them after they have been employed" (3:30). The latter situation is apparently the most characteristic junior college entry procedure.

We would like to suggest, therefore, that orientation, whether as an educative socializing process or as a means of indoctrination, has for its most fundamental rationale the present *inadequacy of preparation programs for junior college faculty.* The existence of and perhaps the growing emphasis on new faculty orientation programs across the country can be viewed as a response to the present condition of unsystematic institutional entry into two-year college teaching.

WHY ORIENTATION?

First, orientation is expedient since the institution must support a procedure that compensates for the rather disparate entry strategies used by those embarking on junior college teaching. If one acknowledges that the entry patterns reflect a transitional period for the development of junior college teaching as a profession, then it can be argued that the support of orientation is necessary. We are aware of the hope generated by special programs and institutes funded under the Education Professions Development Act (EPDA) as well as the efforts of the American Association of Junior Colleges' recently concluded Faculty Development Project to initiate model-preparation programs (24). However, most programs that would serve significant numbers of candidates are only in an embryonic stage. At the present national rate of growth, approximately 25 per cent of the faculty are new each year, and most of them are hired for new positions. An estimated 85,000 faculty were in junior colleges in 1968-69. Considering the projection of new faculty needed in the 1970's (100,000), we are forced to classify orientation as *the strategy for the moment*. The preparation programs that can legitimately be classified as addressed to community-junior college needs can place less than 150 faculty on the market per year. (Pre-service training programs for new faculty in California produced forty-nine candidates in 1968-69 and forty-seven in 1967-68, which undoubtedly represents the largest program of any state in the country.)*

Second, because it allows the institution to protect itself somewhat from compounded confusion, orientation can systematically and briefly introduce novices to the locally prescribed mission of the college. Conscious attempts can and should be made to relate local interpretations of function to a state and national perspective; and while the line between orientation and proselytizing is admittedly fine, it is practical. The problem of bringing together a group of people, most of whom have accepted role obligations without the advantage of special pre-entry exposure, deserves serious consideration. And ". . . orientation in depth is necessary, not only to create 'a faculty' (instead of a group of diverse individuals who happen to be teaching), but also to forge a working consensus" (17:48).

Third, orientation serves to bind individuals of diverse backgrounds into a more cohesive unit. In this way, the transition from the graduate school, the secondary institution, or the business and work-world can be facilitated and a more cohesive social unit established. Moreover, the resultant collage of diversity becomes, in effect, the institutional identity.

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* Tom S. Phair (41) is studying the characteristics of new full-time faculty in California public community colleges. Three years of the total five-year analysis have been completed.

WHO ARE THE FACULTY?

chapter 2

It is difficult to present an accurate picture of the background of new junior college faculty members, although one trend is apparent. Edmund J. Gleazer, Jr., executive director of the American Association of Junior Colleges, has stated, "The sources of faculty are changing . . . A few years ago, a new junior college relied heavily on movement of teachers from secondary schools. Increasingly, however, the chief sources are graduate schools, industry, trades, and the professions" (20).

OCCUPATIONAL EXPERIENCE

Certainly there are some states that reinforce the stereotyped impression that a preponderance of new two-year college faculty are drawn from the secondary school. For example, in California at the present time, about 33 per cent of the new public junior college faculty are former secondary teachers; 19 per cent are former two-year faculty who transferred from other areas; 15 per cent are former four-year faculty; and 10 per cent are from industry or commerce (54). Kansas also fits this category: 86 per cent of the community-junior college faculty in 1967 were from elementary or secondary schools (21). The National Education Association reported that in 1963-64 and 1964-65, of the newly hired teachers in 547 junior colleges, 30 per cent came from high schools, 24 per cent from the graduate schools, 17 per cent from four-year colleges, 12 per cent from government administration, 11 per cent from business occupations, and 4 per cent had just earned their bachelors' degrees (35).

Distinct regional and statewide source differences do exist, however. Studying two-year faculty mobility in an urban area during the period 1962 to 1964, Farris (14) found that 46 per cent of the replacements came from four-year colleges while only 15 per cent came from high schools; the greatest amount of faculty movement was in or out of four-year colleges. "This contradicts the popular belief that the two-year colleges in this region are staffed primarily with former high school teachers," Farris concluded.

Another study of new faculty demonstrates that junior college faculty sources are changing. Kelly (25) found that, of the 1,500 new faculty positions taken in the two-year colleges in New York State during the period 1965 to 1967, the graduate school was the number-one source. Almost a quarter of the faculty candidates had been graduate students the previous year; less than 20 per cent had been high school teachers; approximately 15 per cent came from four-year colleges; about 16 per cent were in business and industry the year before; and less than 10 per cent had worked in another junior college.

ACADEMIC CREDENTIALS

In the table below, several studies have been selected in order to give a general profile of the evolution of academic credentials held by junior college faculty from 1918 to 1969.

TABLE I
AMOUNT OF EDUCATION: PUBLIC JUNIOR COLLEGE FACULTIES
1918 to 1969

YEAR OF STUDY AND AUTHOR	HIGHEST DEGREE			
	Doctorate (Percentage)	**Master's** (Percentage)	**Less Than Master's** (Percentage)	**Total** (Percentage)
1918-1919 (McDowell)	3	39	58	100
1922-1923 (Koos)	3	47	50	100
1953-1954 (Colvert, Litton)	6	68	26	100
1955-1956 (Colvert, Baker)	7	68	25	100
1958-1959 (Medsker)	10	65	25	100
1961 (Siehr)‡	7	73	20	100
1963 (Wattenbarger)	12	77	11	100
1964-1965 (Brown)‡	11	75	14	100
1965-1967 (Kelly—New York)‡	7	68	25	100
1967 (NSF)*	9	74	17	100
1968-1969 (Phair—California)‡	4	78	18	100

* National Science Foundation study (36).
‡ Siehr, Brown, Kelly, and Phair data are for *new faculty* only.

TEACHING EXPERIENCE

A great deal of variation exists throughout the country in the proportion of new faculty members who have prior teaching experience. In the Michigan State study (Siehr), three out of four new faculty had no previous college teaching experience. The New York State study (Kelly) showed that slightly over 20 per cent of the new faculty had no teaching experience whatsoever. The NSF report noted that for 44 per cent of the courses taught, the teachers in May 1967 were on their first teaching assignment. Winter (54) cited 9 per cent of the new California junior college faculty as having had no previous teaching experience and those with experience having taught primarily in high schools.

The emergence of the graduate school as a main source of new faculty for junior colleges results in a rather "hybrid" nature of the teaching staff. Since the institution is becoming the place for graduate students to try out teaching, the secondary school plays a less important role. This trend accounts, in part, for the proportionate lack of experience and the youth of new faculty. In 1967, for example, over 60 per cent of all new faculty in New York State were below age thirty-five and almost 50 per cent were under thirty. The Michigan study revealed that in 1961 the median age of 2,783 new faculty was thirty-three years; three-fourths of the instructors were between twenty and thirty-nine. This is one reason for Dr. Gleazer's statement that "Many junior colleges . . . are faced with the imperative need to develop orientation programs for faculty; and complex in-service programs for the induction of inexperienced teachers into the skills of instruction and the community-oriented nature of a majority of our institutions" (20:7).

THE MARKETPLACE FOR JUNIOR COLLEGE FACULTY

Further justifications for entry-orientation programs are based on (1) examination of the marketplace for two-year faculty, (2) review of techniques used by candidates for acquiring positions, and (3) analysis of the multiple sources of new faculty.

Within the last three years, the marketplace for junior college faculty has come under intensive scrutiny. Brown's national review of job-getting techniques used by 1,373 two-year college instructors in 1964-65 and Kelly's study of job-seeking strategies used by approximately 1,500 new faculty in the public two-year colleges in New York State between 1965 and 1967 give interesting profiles of the market, as can be seen in the following:

1. The academic labor markets for two-year and four-year faculty candidates generally do not overlap.*

2. Most vacancies are the result of brand-new positions.

3. Turnover is substantial: of 100 new faculty, forty-eight will leave the present institution within three years.

4. The two-year market is primarily regional; in many cases it is statewide.

5. Job search is primarily by trial and error; it is unsystematic and uncoordinated.

6. Job seeking is rather discouraging: almost half the seekers (42 per cent) rate their searches as either poor or very poor.

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* A major exception to this is in the New York Metropolitan area; see Farris (14).

7. A crazy quilt of partially formalized agencies is available to assist the candidate, but informal sources provide most information about openings.

Brown's and Kelly's studies show that the marketplace for two-year and four-year college faculty differs both in scope and methods used. While the market for two-year faculty tends to be local and/or regional, the market for four-year faculty is typically national. The senior college market is balkanized, as Brown indicates, by the special demands for faculty in particular disciplines.* For senior college faculty, job-search style is characterized as *inconspicuous*. Brown designates this the "reluctant-maiden" approach. Four-year and university faculty show little desire to appear actually available; they are always looking, yes, but it is not considered appropriate to advertise openly. There is some evidence that the reluctant-maiden approach is out of favor though. What seems to be happening now is that while the experienced candidates can afford to be less conspicuous, the less-qualified candidates — who are generally entering lower-rank institutions — must use formal agencies. Studies of two-year college job-search patterns thus reveal forthright, open, and decidedly aggressive methods — candidates who know people who know about jobs ask about them.

METHODS OF JOB SEARCH

Most job hunters in two-year colleges (53 per cent) write "cold turkey" letters asking potential employers if a vacancy exists, and a majority of the junior college jobs are located through letter-writing. Formal methods are often used at the beginning of the search, rather than being held in reserve in case informal methods fail. Because graduate school professors usually do not have extensive personal contacts in junior colleges, they are not significant as "brokers" in the two-year faculty marketplace. Informal contacts are, nevertheless, extremely important in job search. Those who have acquired positions feed a grapevine that extends back to their former settings: graduate school classmates, faculty colleagues, and other professional friends provide the first lead for 22 per cent of all new appointments. Another 18 per cent of all new jobs are not sought; instead, a recruiter contacts the candidate.

Of course, not all instructors search in the same way or with the same sense of urgency. The graduate student's search is often erratic and unfocused, the blind-letter approach being the favored method. Typically he writes about half a dozen letters to colleges that have been selected on the basis of geographical location, proximity to a graduate school, and reputation. Some students (a minority) write to state central offices, boards of higher education, or coordinating councils if they exist. In the absence of contacts, students may search elaborately, sometimes writing from fifty to one hundred letters of inquiry.

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* For many of the insights regarding the junior college market that are developed here, we are indebted to our friend and colleague, David Brown, vice-president and provost at Drake University in Iowa. He is an economist who has devoted much time to updating the classic Caplow and McGee research on the present marketplace for four-year and two-year college faculty.

The search by secondary school teachers is usually more focused on particular positions in local institutions. Established secondary teachers often express interest in working in a junior college even before it opens. They may not want to leave the community where they have worked for five or seven years, and it is natural to apply for a job in the local college. Although people from business and industry may have to conduct blind searches because they lack accurate information, their sophistication about hiring and interviewing techniques can compensate for this. They may set out a broad net, screen offers thoroughly, and ask the type of questions in the interview that can get them the jobs they want.

TABLE II
METHOD OF FINDING PRESENT JOB IN A TWO-YEAR COLLEGE

METHOD OF SEARCH	PERCENTAGE USING METHOD FOR PRESENT JOB
Blind letter	27
Recruitment	18
College placement office	16
Faculty colleague	9
Other friend	9
Commercial teachers' agency	4
Graduate school professor	4
Graduate school classmate	3
Professional association	2
Position-available advertisement	2
Graduate school office	2
Undergraduate professor	2
Public employment service	1
Publisher's representative	1

Data are summarized from both Brown and Kelly research studies.

Though it may be a deliberate and selective procedure, job search tends to remain haphazard for most community college faculty. Poorman's study (42) showed that 38 per cent of the new faculty entering California junior colleges in 1962-63 used the blind-letter approach; 21 per cent attempted to find positions through college placement channels; and over one-third were helped by professional acquaintances. Generally, job searchers have few offers from which to choose, and they are further limited by a lack of knowledge about their own marketability. This enlarges the importance of the campus interview, which may be seen as a beginning stage of the orientation process. Campus interviews for faculty in two-year as well as four-year colleges have often been criticized. Brown's (7) thorough study of Southeastern (North Carolina) College's recruiting and hiring practices indicated that, whereas on-campus interviews allow the candidate to find out about salary, rank, and course possibilities, the discussion of promotional policy, committee responsibility (i.e., role beyond the classroom), etc., can be vague, inconsistent, and unsystematic. One-quarter of Brown's respondents felt that certain factors were intentionally left out.

That there is a knowledge vacuum among two-year college candidates has been substantiated by Kelly in a study of job search in New York State. The campus interview may be an attitude-conditioning meeting, which is a bonus for the potential faculty member, but candidates attend a small number of interviews either from lack of choice (only one or two options available) or because of prohibitive travel expense (25:128). Ability to bargain constructively in the interview is related to the job seeker's background, and here candidates from business and industry are at an advantage. Whether the occupational-entry patterns for junior college faculty are characterized by professional protocol has not been very well documented.

FACULTY TYPES

Looking at recruitment and staffing practices, it is possible for researchers to place faculty members into various categories, such as source, attitude, and commitment. These will be considered in some detail below.

Source Typologies: Friedman (16) examined the work history of forty-seven public junior college faculty members in Missouri and delineated two teacher types: the "preorganizational-career" teachers and the "organizational-tenure" teachers. He also differentiated the *character* of entry pattern for each type: it is neither anticipated nor sought by the high schoolers; entry is experimental for the graduate students (part of the preorganizational-career typology); their entrance is related to an organizational or personal crisis for new faculty who have previously taught in colleges.

Attitude Typologies: Brown (6:54, 55) discusses the consistent "job-watchers," who are always on the market but never available; the "disenchanted," who consider their present employment disappointing and are willing to relocate; and the "young experimenters," who are often unattached cosmopolitans.

Commitment Typologies: Some of the typologies are based on attitudes toward one's position and toward the institution, as well as on the degree of commitment one has to the teaching role.

Investigating the literature on the subject of various ways to classify teachers, Brawer (3) produced such designations as "end-of-the-roaders," "ladder-climbers," "job-holders," and "defined-purpose-route" types. The definitions of these categories can be compared with the career prototypes that have been designated by Kelly (25) as the "experimenters," the "teaching-committed," and the "academic life-seekers." Brawer describes "end-of-the-roaders" who . . .

> might come from either a high school or university position, or even directly from a role as college student. These are the people who see teaching in the junior college simultaneously as means and ends. They seek a field they can call their permanent home and they settle on it for better or worse (3:20).

And this coincides with Kelly's assertion of "adventitious choice" for a large proportion of graduate students who see junior college teaching as a temporary alternative to other possible work, an opportunity to experiment, a chance to continue graduate exploration, or a role preferable to high school teaching. While the experimental and transitional (adventitious) kind of commitment is also documented for some four-year faculty members, the major group fitting this category seems to be the students. The "ladder-climber" type of teacher is closely aligned to this — they "see the junior college as a stepping-off point for a certain period of time . . . and may be seen as individuals who are still enrolled as university students . . ." (3:20).

The "teaching-committed" types have purposely chosen junior college teaching. Kelly found many of them to be former high school teachers who were "fleeing a setting which they described as poorly administered, boring, disappointing, and unprofessional" (25:110). Many had waited for the establishment of a college nearby and perhaps taught there on a part-time basis before seeking permanent employment. (These are also designated as "defined-purpose-route" types.)

A substantial number of people from business and industry have chosen junior college teaching as a preferred opportunity, although some students, high schoolers, and business-experienced individuals can be classified more correctly in the "job-holder" category. Brawer points out that:

> Their reasons for being interested in education vary. However, they have chosen to teach. Junior colleges present them with occupational opportunities which carry greater or lesser challenges, but their true devotion is usually to another type of field. For example, they might be artists who teach in the junior college for bread and butter but are primarily interested in furthering their own professional careers outside the school. They might be seen as writers in the same sense, considering their job merely a 9-to-5 or 8-to-4 occupation while remaining primarily interested in a family life or other personal pursuits. They are thus quite far from the university professor who takes his research home with him (3:21).

The type that is characterized by purposive change, the "defined-purpose-route" individual, is held up for emulation. This is what most junior college faculty members who are pleased with their prospects will become, and they are the ones who . . .

> have dedicated themselves to the integration of self and to the meeting of their goals. They see the junior college as a teaching institution — a place where diverse types of students come to seek satisfaction for many different kinds of needs (3:21).

The "academic life-seekers" are those individuals from strikingly diverse occupational backgrounds — the military, government agencies, and industry, for instance — who have perhaps rejected an opportunity for financial largesse in order to enter a distinctly new field. There is increasing evidence of their commitment to the institution.

Obviously no particular source-group fits neatly into one classification. Faculty from various sources can be typed according to their attitude and their demonstrated commitment to the two-year college. Future research may more clearly reveal differences that cannot be ignored, but a generalization can be made now: *attitudes toward and commitment to the junior college as a place to work are tempered by previous occupational experience.* Orientation planners must take into consideration the fact that the way an individual approaches his new position depends to a great extent on the style he has adopted through his past experience, and this affects the way he performs his new role and/or his willingness to modify it.

OCCUPATIONAL ATTITUDES

The presence of disparate values demonstrably affects not only the perceptions junior college faculty have of themselves and their role, but it also affects their perception of the institution and its role. Montgomery and Schultz (32), in their examination of faculty members in Florida junior colleges who *accepted* or *rejected* the multi-purpose function of the community college, found that such basic functions as remedial work, adult vocational courses, personal counseling, and short courses for business and industry were rejected as proper functions of the community college by a large percentage of the rejecting group. In fact, more than 16 per cent of the generally accepting group rejected short courses for business and industry as a function, and over 7 per cent of this group felt that adult vocational courses were an inappropriate function.

It is often difficult for new faculty members to comprehend their role and the institution's role since they often lack the special kind of preparation that would make smoother their entry into the community college value system. Thus, there are serious and immediate problems for both the individual and the institution. The role of the faculty member and the requisite norms and values that accompany this role are really the basis of the community college concept. Certain interpretations of the role can drastically alter the educational experience of students and perhaps the direction of a course, a program, or, if pervasive, the whole institution. The role of the community college has not yet been lucidly projected, although it will be developed and refined as much by faculty members as by rhetoric. The *eventual* image and function, therefore, is being established today — and today's decisions determine the nature of the institution tomorrow.

Our concern is warranted. The background of faculty members necessitates not only the drive to seek people from outside the system to revitalize it, but also the drive to seek from within those who understand and appreciate its goals. The university can, through its graduate schools, instill values in the people who will later staff it, whereas the community college must receive its new members and deal with people who are almost totally unaware of its special values, functions, and problems.

ORIENTATION AS SOCIALIZATION

chapter 3

Merton has defined socialization as "the acquisition of attitudes and values, of skills and behavior patterns, making up social roles" (30:41). Although we have commonly viewed socialization as being accomplished primarily in childhood and as a process carried out by parents, it is also true that it occurs whenever an individual enters a new social system. Socialization is thus as relevant to the community college as to any other organization, although it is seldom recognized and even less often labeled.

Socialization enables the new members of an organization to adjust to a different set of role requirements in a new social system; it is fundamentally a process of transition. Of the many roles or role constellations that the modern adult is called on to perform, Moore states, "few exceed in importance the acquisition of requisite skills and attitudes for occupations" (33:861).

Despite its lack of recognition, the socialization process is critical both to the individual and to the organization. Considering the diversity of background that new community college faculty members bring to their positions, it is not surprising that they lack a clear and well-defined concept of the institution in which they will teach. More important, they are often unsure not only of the institution, the community, and the students, but also of what these elements dictate as the role of a community college faculty member — a role, it could be argued, unique in higher education today and almost impossible to comprehend unless it has been experienced. To fully appreciate this role, to understand its demands, and to function effectively in it, most new faculty members must undergo an intensive socialization process.

Although adult socialization is pervasive, it is not necessarily *initial* socialization but instead *re*socialization (4). Adults rarely, if ever, enter a social system as a *tabula rasa* since, typically, they carry with them the learnings of previous socialization experiences. The resocialization acclimates them to the new system. It facilitates this adjustment by correcting deficiencies in previous socialization experiences and by developing or changing previously held values and attitudes that are contrary to those of the new system. Often the process is difficult and remains uncompleted, or else a token conformity is accepted in lieu of any true attitude or value change (5:28). Also, the effort at resocialization is often costly in terms of mental and financial resources and, perhaps, can be made only when the need for a specific type of manpower is unusually great and the question of efficiency becomes secondary to the demand for personnel (5:27) — such as the community college's need for competent and committed faculty.

Evidence for this demand can be seen in the willingness of community colleges to accept and, in fact, to search for qualified people from a wide variety of fields including the military, the ministry, business, and industry. Even though many of the individuals recruited are alien to the nuances of college life, and especially to the philosophy and objectives of the community college, the demand is great enough that colleges are forced to hire on subject matter competence alone, hoping to develop favorable attitudes and sometimes even teaching skill later on.

The heterogeneity of the faculty, lack of a clear concept of the community college — both in the education field and society in general, the drastically altered educational experience that can result for students coming in contact with a faculty member who misinterprets his role, and the potential modification of the goals of the college that can take place if a collective misinterpretation exists — all of these factors attest the need for an *effective socialization process.*

TIMING

Socialization is a universal process in all groups and organizations. However, much of it may be accomplished before formal entrance into a new system through training in vestibule organizations, since anticipatory socialization takes place when one anticipates and aspires to the values of a new group (5:83). University faculty, physicians, and lawyers, for example, are well socialized to their professions in graduate school (30:77-78). Some socialization experiences are harsh and at times violent — as in prison; other are subtle, though equally effective — as in the country club. In any case, if the process itself is not begun or anticipated before entrance, it is begun immediately by the organization and its members.

Whereas universities embrace new faculty who have already undergone a severe socialization process, the two-year colleges recruit many faculty from areas other than the academic profession. If they have come from the academic profession, they usually have been socialized to the hierarchical university value system, a system that is not readily adapted to the community college. If the new members are not pre-socialized, or do not undergo anticipatory socialization, an extensive and immediate socialization process becomes absolutely necessary. The orientation of new faculty can and should serve as a condensed and organized micro-socialization experience.* It should immediately acquaint new faculty with the goals of the college and values and attitudes associated with these goals as well as role specifications and information for achieving them. Parsons has theorized that "the efficacy of social structure depends ultimately upon infusing group participants with appropriate attitudes and sentiments" (38:52). This "infusion" process may be termed socialization, and the efficacy of our institutions may well depend on it.

ATTENDANT PROBLEMS

It is possible that many of our failures in the past, not merely in organizing effective orientation programs but, more importantly, in assisting faculty with their new roles and retaining them as committed members of the institution, have been a function of our inability to recognize the importance of the socialization process and to deal with it effectively. Yet its existence is at least implied in Blocker's statement, "The *conditioning* of two-year college faculty members is more pervasive than is apparent" (italics added) (2:140). The problem is mainly that the process of orientation, which for the most part *has been* merely information giving, is not related to the ultimate goal: competent, satisfied faculty who know the students, the community, the institution, and their role in relation to all three. Using the theory of socialization as a basis for orientation (and also for faculty development programs) would also provide a sound basis for channeling such efforts.

Daniel Bell, a sociologist renowned for his work on the undergraduate curriculum at Teachers College, Columbia University, has stated, "A university is unlike a business corporation, a government bureau, a prison, or a hospital in its values, its hierarchies, and its capacities for tolerating differences, yet it is also subject to some common rules of organizational analysis" (1:10). Indeed the community college is unlike any of these systems—and is unlike the university itself—yet it is still governed by many of the principles that apply to all organizations. The organizational socialization that takes place in any setting, whether consciously planned or totally unstructured, is based on a few of the principles of analysis to which Bell refers. To plan the process, rather than to allow it to go along haphazardly, demands some acquaintance with the principles involved.

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* We are indebted to Professor W. Max Wise of Teachers College, Columbia University, for bringing to our attention the link between orientation and socialization.

Gaus has described organization as the "arrangement of personnel for facilitating the accomplishment of some agreed purpose through the allocation of functions and responsibilities" (19:66). Although organizations, particularly colleges, may function well with considerable deviance (38:239), there must be some basic acceptance of the validity and legitimacy of the organization and its objectives. Otherwise, as Selznik states, when "unity derived from a common understanding of what the character of the organization is meant to be . . . breaks down, as in situations of internal conflict over basic issues, the continued existence of the organization is endangered" (48:27). Though it has happened infrequently, the two-year institutions that have aspired to or, in fact, been transformed to four-year status are testimony to the potential threat posed by misunderstanding the essential character of an organization. A lack of understanding on the part of the faculty can greatly modify the direction of the institution. Such lack of understanding often may be characterized by an identification with the values of the university or four-year college rather than with those of the community college and teaching. Assuming what are actually antagonistic values can alter teaching style, influence perception of the students, and develop resistance to community demands.

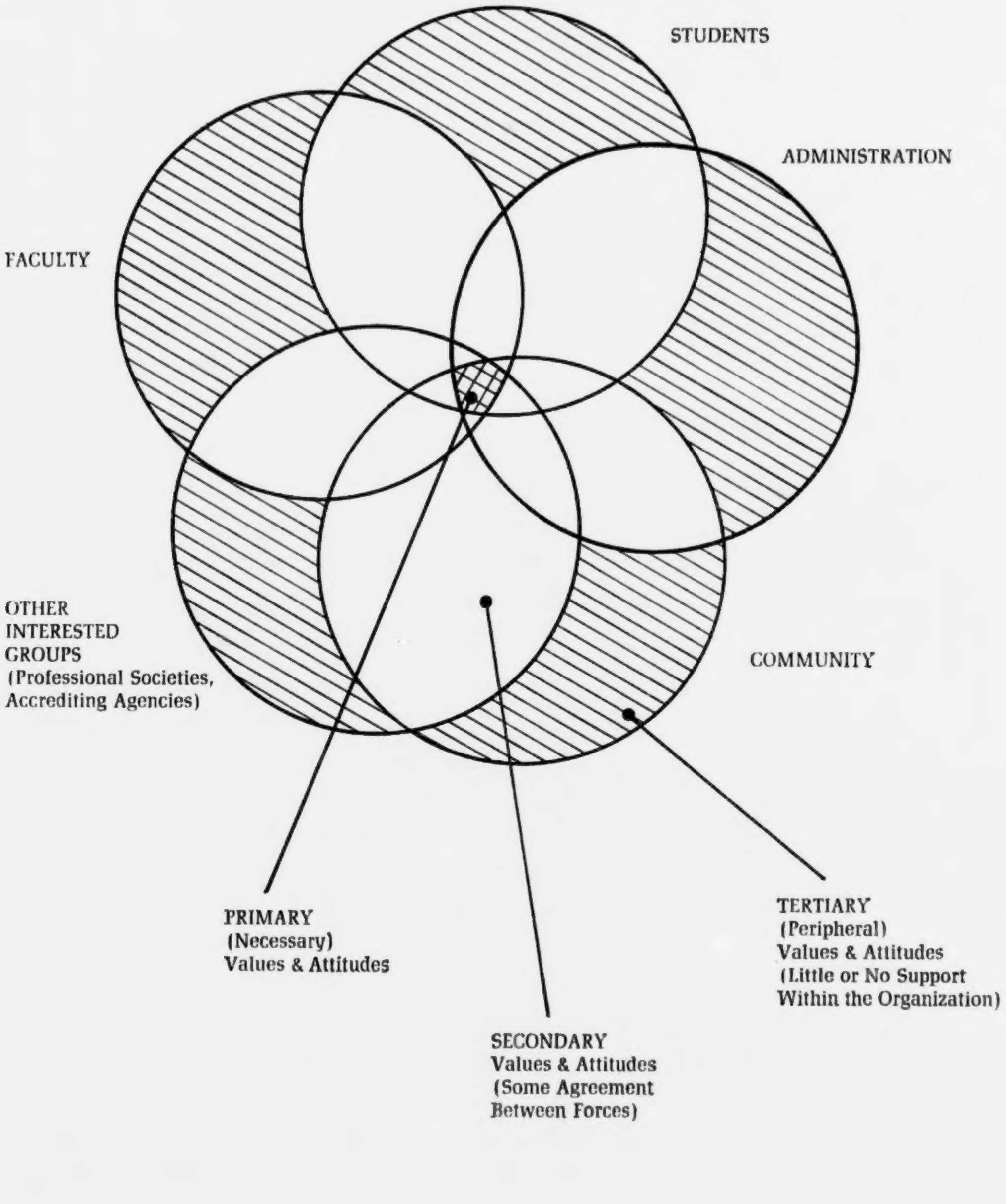
Some would argue that the institution *is* the faculty. However, society's demands on both public and private colleges — and particularly the local tax-supported institution — do not allow unilateral interpretation of the institution's goals and nature by any one interest group. The demands of faculty must be tempered with those of students and public, each contributing decisions that are more compromise than consensus. Such a division challenges common purpose and singular identity.

Diversity of attitude can be healthly in many respects, yet every organization — business, social, or educational — has intrinsic values necessary for its continued functioning. These values, though perhaps few in number, are extremely meaningful for the achievement of organizational goals. Individuals who do not hold them are often "selected out" (11:154), either by organizational pressures or through their own motivation, if in fact they are ever "selected in." This is not to say that organizations or other social systems demand total conformity. As in any human group, individuals accept and reject organizational goals to varying degrees, although certain fundamental organizational goals are usually shared by all members.

The following Venn diagram indicates a theoretical model of the distribution of consensus or institutional goals. This institutional value system, although labeled to represent group forces, could also represent individual value consensus.

FIGURE 1

INSTITUTIONAL VALUE SYSTEM



Three classes of values are represented in this diagram. The primary or fundamental consensual values are universal throughout the organization and are necessary for maintaining the identity and continuous functioning of the system. Any members of the organization not sharing these would, in all probability, be dysfunctional members of the system. The secondary values are not shared by all members of the organization. These are often topics of contention and, depending on the specific value, may create flux in the status of the institutional value pattern. The tertiary or peripheral attitudes and values may be held by members of the organization, but, if held, are suppressed because of their antithetical nature and their lack of support from other individuals or groups.

Usually we select the groups we enter because their goals and values are at least similar to our own. Groups, in turn, select new members on the same basis (12:70). If an organization does not project a clear image of itself or if it is frequently confused with other organizations having a similar title, structure, or function, the new member may not be fully aware of the values of the system he has entered.

The philosophical, educational, and environmental differences between the comprehensive community college and the four-year institution are certainly not known to most of the population at large, or even to most educators. In fact, a good many individuals directly concerned with higher education are uninformed about the real differences. (There are many similarities between the two — i.e., they have a similar structure, offer compatible degrees, have some of the same kinds of facilities, and have students who move with increasing ease between the two.)

As a social system, the community college is *relatively* different from the other social systems, such as the military, business, or the university, from which its members are drawn. A distinct social structure, the community college has its own evolving value pattern, although the new members it attracts possess varying backgrounds and training and, as a function of their experience, may possess value patterns dissimilar to those of the college.

A COMPARISON MODEL

To demonstrate this point, we have used an organizational value-system model to compare the "sameness" of values of some systems that are major sources of community college faculty. This is a modification of the micro-society model developed by Sells (47) for the analysis of the social system of the multi-man, extended-duration spaceship and later adapted for comparative analysis of social systems.

The model involves eight major categories of description, each represented by a pattern of quantitative or categorical variables.

TABLE I
SYSTEM CHARACTERISTICS OF A COMPREHENSIVE COMMUNITY COLLEGE

2 — Highly Similar
1 — Moderately Similar
0 — Dissimilar

Comparison Systems

	Military	University	Business	High School	Church	Private Jr. Coll.
1. OBJECTIVES AND GOALS						
To provide vocational training	1	0	1	2	0	1
To provide general education	1	2	0	1	0	2
To serve community cultural needs	0	2	0	1	0	1
To serve the educational needs of adults	1	2	1	1	1	2
To offer university parallel programs	0	2	0	0	0	2
To improve the community	0	1	0	0	1	1
2. PHILOSOPHY AND VALUE SYSTEMS						
Opportunity to fail or succeed	2	0	0	2	0	1
Client- (student-) centered	0	1	0	2	2	2
Learning-centered	0	1	0	2	0	2
Meritocratic	0	2	1	2	0	2
Vocational orientation	0	1	1	2	0	1
Education as a lifelong process	1	2	1	1	1	1
3. PERSONNEL COMPOSITION						
Highly skilled	2	2	2	1	1	2
Upwardly mobile	2	2	2	2	1	2
Formally educated	1	2	1	2	2	2
Status-oriented	2	2	2	2	1	2
Of non-organizational character	0	2	0	1	1	2
Locally recruited	0	0	1	2	0	2
4. ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE						
Formal authority	2	2	2	2	1	2
Limited participation	1	2	1	1	1	2
Chain of command	1	2	2	2	0	2
Defined roles	1	2	2	2	1	2
Top-dominant	1	2	2	2	1	2
Local accountability	0	1	1	2	2	2
Poor inter-group communication	1	2	1	2	0	2
Lack of total control over resources	2	2	0	2	1	1
Community involvement	0	1	0	1	2	0
Community support	0	1	0	2	2	1

TABLE I—Continued

	Comparison Systems					
	Military	University	Business	High School	Church	Private Jr. Coll.
5. TECHNOLOGY						
Professional jargon	2	2	2	2	1	2
Slow change	2	2	0	2	1	2
Basic	0	2	0	2	0	2
Media-oriented	0	1	0	2	0	2
Evolving	1	2	1	2	0	2
Of secondary importance	0	2	1	2	2	2
6. PHYSICAL ENVIRONMENT						
Often temporary	1	1	0	0	1	2
Inadequate space	1	2	1	1	1	2
Rapid expansion	1	2	2	2	1	1
Pastoral setting	1	2	0	1	0	1
Multi-structured	0	1	0	2	0	2
Characterized by mild separation	0	2	0	1	0	2
Using community resources	0	1	0	1	1	1
7. SOCIAL CULTURAL ENVIRONMENT This is basically the same for all of the organizations being compared. A partial list would include: geography, demography, history, culture, social stratification, and social problems.						
8. TEMPORAL CHARACTERISTICS						
Temporary affiliation	2	2	0	2	0	2
Non-pervasive	0	2	1	2	0	2
Remoteness of goals	1	2	0	2	2	2

The above comparisons demonstrate both the differences and the similarities between the comprehensive community college and the several social systems that are major sources of their personnel.

SOCIALIZATION AND SELECTIVITY

As previously mentioned, organizations select individuals with value patterns similar, or at least acceptable, to their own. There is a direct relationship between an individual's background and previously learned behavior patterns to the amount of socialization that will be required;

the highly selective organization thus devotes fewer of its resources to socialization, whereas the less selective organization devotes more (46). There is also a direct relationship between the efforts expended and the quality of the organization, as the following chart illustrates (11:15).

TABLE II

SELECTION, SOCIALIZATION, AND ORGANIZATIONAL QUALITY

SOCIALIZATION EFFORTS	SELECTIVITY	
	High	*Low*
High	High quality	Medium quality
Low	Medium quality	Low quality

The community college is, we would hope, highly selective in terms of faculty recruitment and hiring. However, because of the diversity of its programs and functions and because of the tremendous variety of personnel it recruits, its socialization problems are similar to those of less selective organizations. Moreover, the factor of intensive and extended educational preparation for the role — usually an accurate method of assessing the amount of socialization necessary — is somewhat attenuated because the educational preparation of most community college faculty is seldom related to the role they are to assume. Instead, the preparation is often more relevant to their assuming a role of researcher or member of a graduate faculty, or even, perhaps, businessman, high school teacher, or army captain.

As a result of many factors — especially the diversity of the faculty — comprehensive community colleges are faced with a severe test of their organizational identity and distinction. The colleges must assimilate many new members from different social structures, who often possess dissimilar or even contrary value patterns. They must prepare these people for roles that might be vastly different from the ones they had anticipated and must perform all of this with limited resources while in the early stages of organizational evolution.

The bifurcated faculty — one set of attitudes dominating faculty in career and vocational areas and a different set predominant among those in liberal arts and sciences — is a significant factor in the type of identity schizophrenia that occurs in many comprehensive community colleges. Instead of one perception of institutional purpose, there are many; instead of equal valuation of curricula, there are rankings that depend either on the transfer potential or the immediate "placement price" of the graduates.

THE SOCIALIZATION PROCESS

The theoretical framework for the process of socialization is not very complicated or obscure. Three steps basic to implementation are:

1. Making the new norms known
2. Providing the necessary rationale for change
3. Providing the motivation for change.

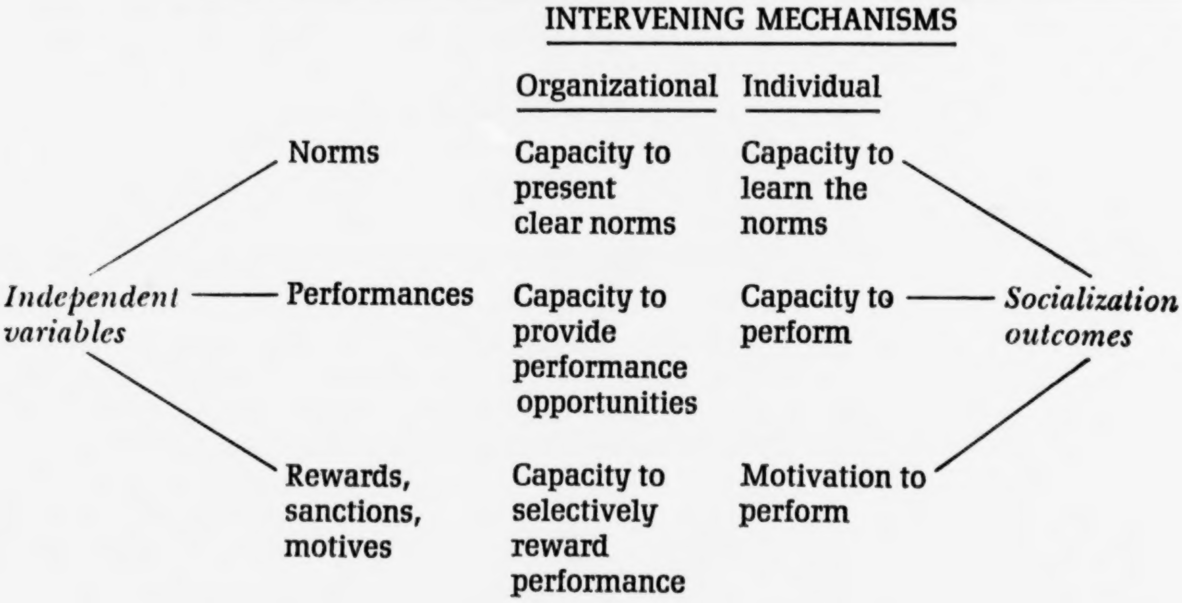
Actualization of these steps is far from simple and our knowledge of the total process is limited. It is possible, however, to know the initial and final stages of the process and thus describe the intermediary stages as constructs (38:19). If this can be done, the resultant model may be adaptable or generalizable to other similar contents.

Step 1. The first step — making the new norms known — requires the often painful but healthy process of institutional introspection. Defining what our institution is, what its true goals are, and what is required to achieve them is no simple task; an accreditation experience is probably the closest analogy. In most orientation programs, this step, in some form or other, has comprised almost the entire program. At best, it is an ill-defined stage, and it suffices for orientation merely because it is possible to saturate new faculty with idealistic statements of institutional philosophy which we ourselves have not even examined thoroughly. This step is difficult also because there may be no concrete conception of institutional objectives and the values and behaviors necessary for achieving them. Varied and, in fact, antagonistic views of the college may be held by trustees, administrators, faculty, and students.

Referring to Figure 1 on page 17, the reader will note that *at least* the primary attitudes and values must be defined and communicated to new faculty. It is not suggested that the faculty members adhere to a total and specific value pattern, but if an individual's attitudinal pattern does not correlate to some extent with the institutional configuration, internecine stress will occur and neither the individual nor the institution will achieve its goals. Attitudes are rather vague hypothetical constructs and do not readily lend themselves to definition or measurement. We should therefore work toward a modicum of agreement — a dynamic equilibrium between the individual and the institution that will allow the needs and goals of each to be satisfied within the institutional context.

The process of making the institutional norms known has two separate elements: defining the norms — in this case, role behaviors and values — and communicating them effectively. The role behaviors necessary for faculty members in the particular college should be well detailed in a faculty handbook, as well as imbedded in the institutional policy. These behaviors should be the standards against which successful or unsuccessful performance is measured. The evaluative process, promotion, tenure, and recognition of outstanding performance, should all somehow relate to these role behaviors.

FIGURE 2
FRAMEWORK FOR ANALYSIS OF SOCIALIZATION IN ORGANIZATIONS (5:112)



		INTERVENING MECHANISMS		
		Organizational	Individual	
	Norms	Capacity to present clear norms	Capacity to learn the norms	
Independent variables	Performances	Capacity to provide performance opportunities	Capacity to perform	*Socialization outcomes*
	Rewards, sanctions, motives	Capacity to selectively reward performance	Motivation to perform	

The attitudinal element of this phase cannot be accurately measured, except perhaps by administering properly developed pre- and post-questionnaires. Few organizations, however, care to involve themselves in such procedures. Hence, behavior change (or token conformity) is usually accepted as indicating concurrent value change — which, of course, it does not. The values are better expressed in terms of institutional goals and the institutional value system. Combined with specific role behaviors, the institutional system projects or else implies values that would support certain role behaviors. For example, regular office hours and general availability to the students as a prescribed faculty responsibility, and a statement of the institution's goals as being primarily focused on the students' needs — these would indicate that teachers whose value patterns are oriented to research rather than to teaching would find themselves in an antagonistic position with regard to the institutional goals.

Step 2. The second step in the socialization process — providing the rationale for change — rests primarily upon effective communications. By effective communication we do not mean just thoroughly prepared and skillfully delivered lectures, although these may well be part of any program and are difficult to avoid. More important than the speeches or lectures, however, are the informal communications between group members. In fact, this one element of the entire socialization process — group interaction — is at the same time the most critical and the most frequently ignored of all the mechanisms of change.

In communicating with either groups or individuals, a few principles should be borne in mind as requisites for effective communication:

1. It is better to present both sides of any issue (29).
2. Arousing the faculty member's needs and then presenting information to satisfy those needs will tend to increase the acceptability of the message (49).
3. Effective communication is usually better from points of agreement than from points of disagreement (13).
4. The source of communication can be as important as the content (23).
5. Participation enhances the impact of the message (31).

Rationales are usually relative and are often "rational" only if one adheres to a certain point of view. Thus, differences in perception can influence the rationales that people are willing to accept. The basis of any rationale is, however, information; therefore, it is important to effectively communicate the information on which one's goals are based whenever one wants to bring about changes. Indeed, a rationale can be seen as simply the transfer of significant information into goal statements. Communication is one of the most important elements in this process.

Step 3. The last step in the socialization process is by far the most important: providing the motivation for change. Adult socialization tends to be a group process (43:8), not only in the sense that more than one individual at a time is being socialized but also in the sense that the primary mechanism for socialization *is* the group. Although we may occasionally spell out our goals to new faculty and also, perhaps, accurately describe their roles, we seldom take the time or effort to reinforce value or behavior change. Both motivation and reinforcement for change may originate in the group, and as a result, groups tend to have a centralizing or conforming nature. It is not really the organization as an economic or legal entity but the group as a social entity that performs the vital function of socialization.

Any organization can have many different groups and, thus, many socialization processes (some of which may be negative, in fact). Group interaction affords an individual the opportunity to compare his values with those held by other group members, and since the groups are usually composed mainly of incumbent members of the organization, the predominant values are usually those of the organization. The group therefore communicates the organizational norm, often also the rationale, and offers support for any ensuing change.

In academe, the most common group structure is the department, with value differences existing from one department to the next. For instance, in the business department norms and role specifications are more influenced by the business world than by the university, whereas in the English department the opposite is usually true. As a result, the socialization processes in the two departments are probably quite different.

Within any group, certain individuals may be considered ranking members and thus are important mechanisms of socialization: the ranking member often becomes a point of reference for new members and may be a model for identification and emulation. Research has shown that a "sponsor relationship" (39:27) is frequently created by "teaming" old and new members, a relationship which instills in the new member an obligation to succeed and to fulfill the role model provided by the sponsor. (Perhaps a conscious realization of the ubiquitous nature of identification will stimulate people to be better models.)

Ideally, the group's most important function, and the *raison d'être* of socialization, is reinforcing value and behavioral changes — the group as a whole, or singularly significant individuals in it, must provide positive and continual support to the new members. The process of socialization is, therefore, also one of identification with the organization and its goals, with particular groups in the organization, and with significant individuals comprising the groups.

The model that is provided by an individual or by the organization must be effectively communicated; it must also be supported by a well conceived rationale and be constantly reinforced. Individuals often come to an organization with some identification with its goals, and the strengthening of this identification occurs as the individual accepts certain role models and their concomitant values. Identification with the organization occurs after identification with a significant individual; orientation, if planned to achieve this purpose, can be an encapsulated socialization process.

OVERVIEW OF FACULTY ORIENTATION PROGRAMS IN TWO-YEAR COLLEGES

chapter 4

The orientation process is what everyone resolves to handle better next year. It is considered increasingly important as part of the entry process into junior-community college teaching, yet we know little about either the orientation programs typically followed in two-year colleges of this country or about their effectiveness when viewed by faculty recipients. Doctoral dissertations provide the only systematic examination of these programs, and information on orientation practices in private junior colleges is even more sparse.

The data presented here are based on studies of recorded practices in public community colleges in Michigan (Eaton, 1964), California (Richards, 1964), and New York (Pettibone, 1969). No attempt has been made to include literature dealing specifically with orientation in four-year colleges and universities. While there is some overlapping of pertinent data, significant differences in the two entry situations preclude a true comparison. However, the three studies that will be discussed are remarkably consistent in both their findings and recommendations; and, although they represent practices in three states and vary over time, certain general comments can be made about them.

1. The core of information necessary for any orientation program in the two-year college includes opportunities to discuss the objectives, philosophy, and style of the institution — for example, what makes it different from other higher education institutions? This requires substantial input on the characteristics of students and the various demands placed on new faculty as they relate to the members of their department, the division, and the administration.

2. In carrying out effective orientation programs, incumbent faculty can function most meaningfully as socializers to the system. Results indicate, however, that orientation is still typically ordained, planned, and implemented from above.

3. Students are seldom formally included in orientation programs, either as assistant planners or as presenters. They are more likely to be represented only by their records.

4. Facilities tours are usually part of the orientation package.

5. Orientation programs suffer from lack of systematic follow-up. They are offered each year and then forgotten until planning begins for the next program.

6. The most successful component of orientation is the informal building of ties among colleagues.

7. No consistent or clear balance seems to exist between orientation as a review of policy, rules, and regulations and orientation as an introduction to the educational environment.

MICHIGAN

The Eaton study (10) presents data on orientation practices at each of Michigan's public community colleges (there were sixteen in 1962-63). At that time, only 37 per cent reported structured programs of orientation. Following the survey of the programs, sixty-six new faculty from eight colleges were interviewed concerning their responses to their college's orientation program. The study thus provided data on the kind of practices followed as well as an evaluative summary of the program by the new faculty members.

Eaton defined orientation in two ways: first, as programs that explain the administrative policies; and second, as the in-service education of the instructor, involving continuing development or re-education for instructor improvement. It was revealed that community college administrators in 1962-63 commonly used or considered using the following means of orienting new faculty:

1. Distributing a faculty handbook (in five out of eight institutions) of rules and regulations

2. Holding group meetings to introduce new faculty to issues and/or to meet colleagues (seven out of eight colleges)

3. Maintaining an "open door" policy with new faculty. All the colleges selected for intensive study let new faculty members know that administrators were available to confer with them.

Three colleges endorsed a "buddy system" of pairing experienced and inexperienced faculty members in a teaching situation. Two of the eight colleges had a policy of pre-contract visits to the campus.

To carry out the second level of orientation, Eaton notes, the newly initiated faculty member must rely on and trust his teaching colleagues.

1. Fellow faculty are listed as the most helpful factor in the new teacher's adaptation to the college.

2. New faculty members are provided with differing accounts of role and responsibility from deans, other faculty, and chairmen.

3. Faculty are not impressed by the faculty handbook, seldom seeing it as an aid.

4. The most difficult question new faculty must answer is, "What are the main objectives of the college?"

Eaton's conclusions coincide with reports from other states. He urges that second-year staff or "older" faculty be involved in the planning and implementation of orientation programs and that they concentrate on discussing the philosophy and objectives of the community college. His justification for the investment of staff time and energy in orientation is the diversity of experience and occupational background among his sixty-six respondents.

Ample evidence is given that in 1962-63, Michigan public community colleges were not providing even minimal orientation programs for new faculty. Only half the colleges included an explanation or discussion of the history, role, philosophy, or purpose of the college. Counseling and student personnel services received varying treatment, and for the most part, only the student records were explained in this context. The nature of the students to be served and discussion of the psychology of the post-adolescent-to-adult range were often limited to simple enumeration of differences between day and evening students.

CALIFORNIA

Richards (44) studied orientation in twenty-three California public junior colleges by identifying critical incidents that contributed to and/or interfered with the orientation of new faculty. Interviews conducted with 251 new faculty and 124 administrators elicited 762 critical incidents. Richards was able to determine that the informal, personal assistance given to new faculty by incumbent colleagues more frequently contributed to smooth entry than any other factor. The incidents reported as dysfunctional to meaningful orientation included untimely and inappropriate orientation meetings and criticisms by senior staff members of new instructors in front of students, other faculty, and off-campus guests.

Clearly, Richards' data show a preference for informally aided communication among colleagues rather than formal orientation meetings, which are often too long and may include topics seen as unimportant from the new faculty member's perspective. He concluded that: the central aim of orientation is to promote more effective performance by the new faculty members in their assigned roles; the similarities and differences between the two-year colleges and other educational institutions require discussion; faculty sponsors should have released time and compensation for work with new faculty; and division and departmental chairmen should be the major administrative participants in orientation programs.

NEW YORK

Pettibone (40) asked 30 public two-year college administrators, 481 new faculty, and 50 veteran faculty to describe the content of their orientation programs and to detail the methods used to disseminate orientation information. Three ideal leadership styles were differentiated among the administrators who directed orientation programs: some concentrated on informing new faculty about procedure and regulations in the institution; others emphasized topics dealing with the personal and professional needs of the newcomers; and a third group used a mix of informational and personal components. The basic purpose of this study was to see if the planners' intentions were suitable to the personal needs of the new staff.

The results indicated that orientation programs tend to be administrator-directed; presentations are typically characterized by one-way communication; the most common channel for disseminating information is the special meeting of new faculty; information disseminated by administrators furthers the interests of the institution, whereas material of primary interest to the personal concerns of new faculty is emphasized less; little use is made of printed material or community agencies as information resources; and the department chairman is the key informant for new faculty. The *dean* is identified by experienced faculty as the key person, however, and the fact that the *chairman* serves this purpose for new personnel suggests the growing involvement of middle administration as colleges become more complex.

The Pettibone research uncovered some interesting incongruities. New faculty rated the overall orientation procedure quite negatively when questioned during the spring of their first year. Experienced faculty declared that more information relating to their personal adjustment should have been available and that administrators revealed a discrepancy between what they said during orientation and what they actually did. For instance, administrators rated "very important" such items as regular conferences with new faculty in order to evaluate progress, but this was seldom accomplished.

Pettibone argues strongly for a long-range orientation concept, viewing the in-service dimension of the induction process as crucial. He recommends that orientation programs be planned by a committee of faculty, administrators, and students; that feedback mechanisms be built into the planning phase; that major responsibility for orientation be given to the committee (rather than to the dean); that orientation be viewed in relation to both short-term and long-range goals; that short group meetings be balanced by a variety of events; that new faculty be surveyed before the orientation so that the programs will reflect their backgrounds; and that the family and social-community aspects of new job transition be made more visible in orientation.

RELATED STUDIES

Tracy in 1961 (52) surveyed the type of information desired by new faculty. He discovered that large groups wanted such basic data as the objectives of their department, the objectives and content of the courses they were going to teach, the goals of the college and problems in meeting them, and the types of students enrolled in the college.

In a doctoral dissertation at Teachers College, Columbia University, Stripling (51) specified fifty areas of difficulty for new faculty members, including grading policies and student evaluation. Siehr (50) identified problems that new faculty believe need to be remedied but concluded that the typical orientation program of two or three days is not the answer. Continuing problems deserve examination over a longer period of time — perhaps through an in-service program. Recently, Morrison (34) queried the total teaching faculty on nine Florida public junior college campuses and reported that formal and informal in-service programs appear successful in inculcating particular values and conceptual bases of the community college. Also, when new faculty members see other faculty accepting various concepts they are more likely to adopt these values themselves.

NATIONAL SURVEY OF TWO-YEAR FACULTY ORIENTATION

Some aspects of the research that has been described are made irrelevant not so much by time as by the growing response of community colleges to the need for faculty orientation. The changes, both in the number and in the structure of faculty orientation programs, have prompted the authors to re-examine the status of these on a national scale. To up-date research on the topic and to explore additional aspects of orientation programs, a nationwide survey of public and private two-year colleges was conducted during the fall of 1969.

A four-page questionnaire was mailed to the "Dean of Faculty" of 993 institutions listed in the *1969 American Association of Junior Colleges Directory*. That 485 persons returned the questionnaire indicates a general interest in orientation by professional members of two-year colleges. Four hundred sixteen, or 86 per cent, of the respondents stated that their institution currently operates a planned orientation program for new faculty; the remainder, or 14 per cent, said that they have no formal program.

A Profile. The sample of 416 institutions with orientation programs included 332 privately supported and 84 publicly supported institutions. Their student bodies ranged from 38 to 14,900 full-time students, with a mean full-time student body of 1,281; the mean number of full-time faculty was 73, ranging from 6 to 641. Their regional distribution is given in Table I.

TABLE I

Accrediting Region	Number	Percentage of Total
New England	23	5.5
Middle States	66	15.8
Southern	132	31.8
North Central	127	30.6
Western	42	10.1
Northwestern	26	6.2
	416	100.0%

Of the institutions with orientation programs, almost half (47 per cent) conducted them during a one- or two-day period. A significant number (15.26 per cent) conducted three-day programs; those with four- or five-day or weekend orientations were considerably fewer (6.39 per cent, 7.02 per cent, and 0.2 per cent, respectively). Something of a surprise, but an encouraging one, was the number of institutions conducting an orientation of more than five days.

FIGURE 1
LENGTH OF ORIENTATION PERIOD BY PERCENTAGE

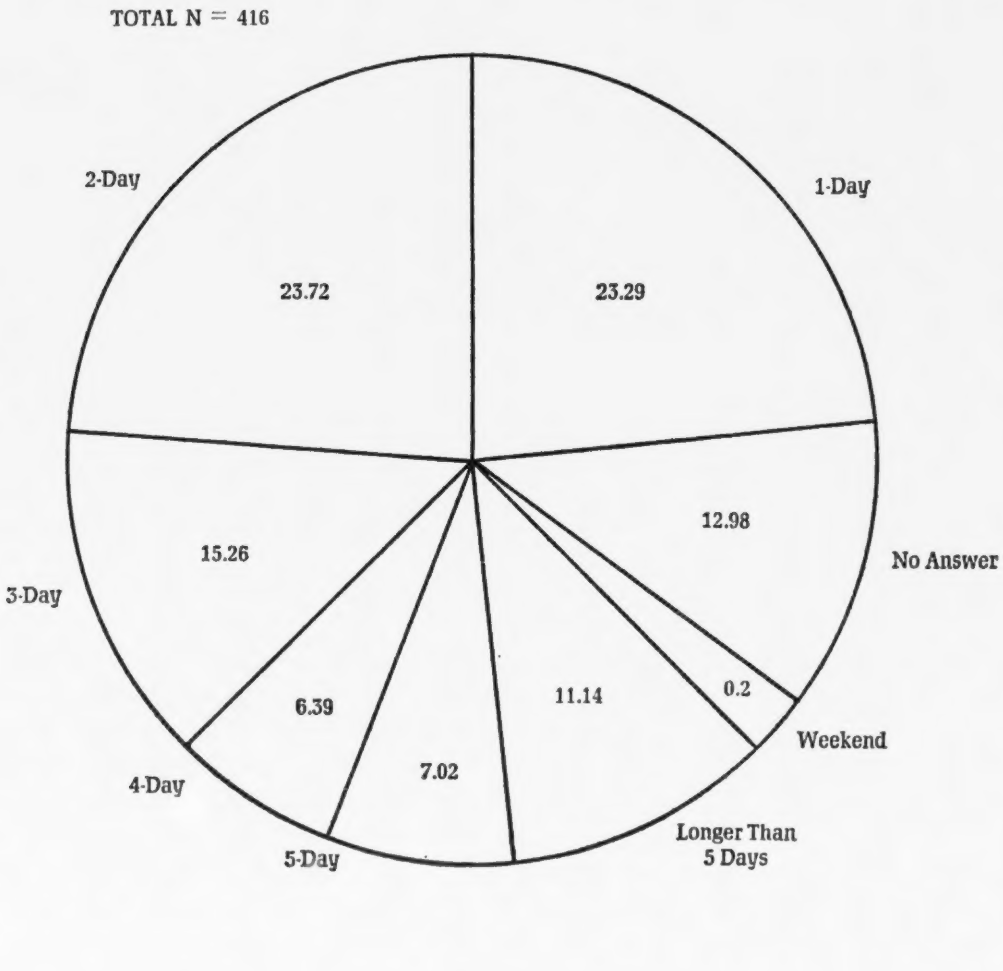


TABLE II
INSTITUTIONAL SIZE (FULL-TIME FACULTY)

	Number	Percentage of Total
0-50	223	53.6
51-100	99	23.8
101-150	49	11.8
151-200	17	4.1
201-300	20	4.8
301-400	8	1.9
	416	100.0%

Roughly 37 per cent of the responding institutions had begun orientation programs during their first year of operation; another 11.77 per cent began in their second year. (One institution began its program in its 140th year of operation.) Examination of the institutions that began programs their first or second year showed that the largest percentage (73 per cent) had opened after 1963, further evidence of the growing value of orientation programs, particularly to new and developing institutions.

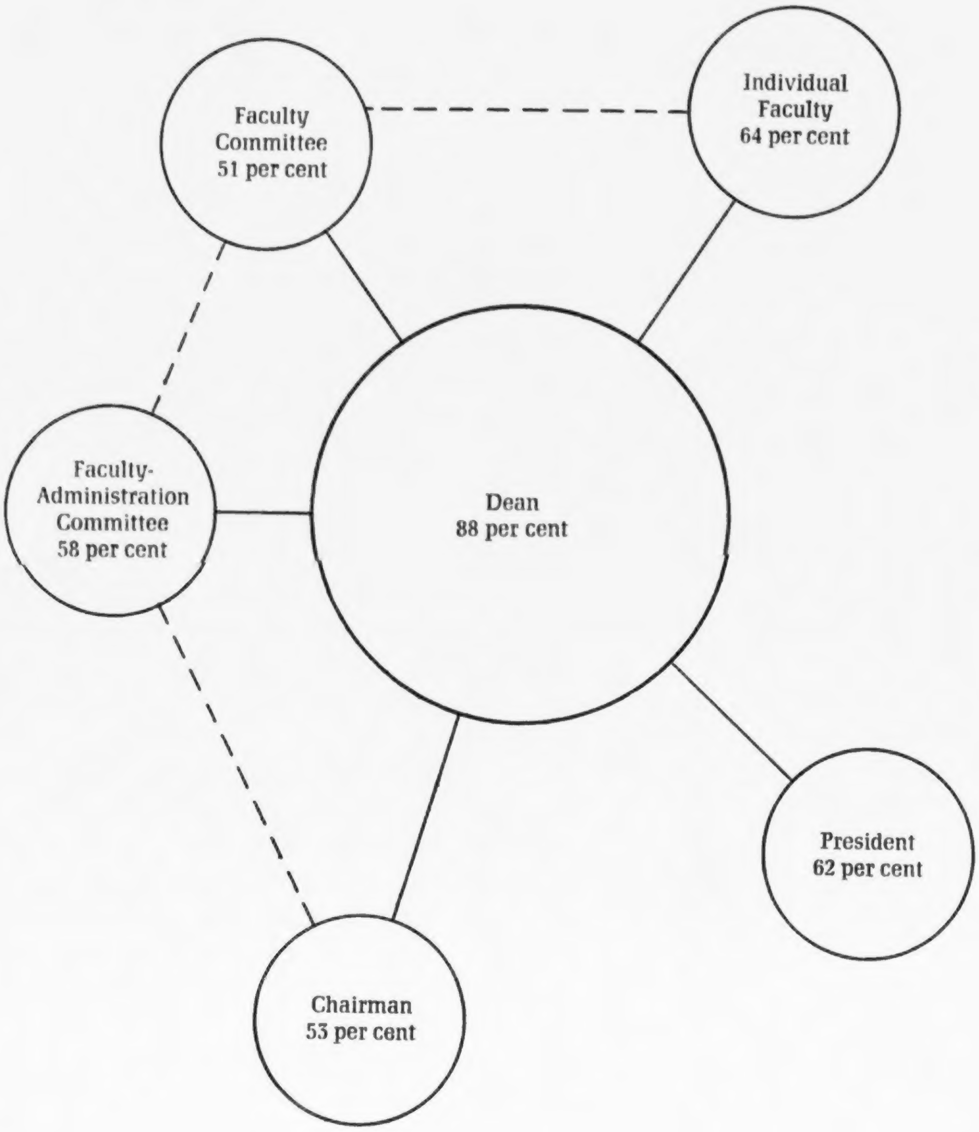
Typically, between ten and twenty faculty members participated in the orientation programs of the colleges in our sample. A total of 8,695 individual faculty on 416 campuses were involved in orientation sessions during the fall of 1969, an average of twenty-two per campus. In comparison, the same institutions reported orienting a total of 7,625 faculty during the fall of 1968. The smallest number involved each year was one; the largest were 266 (1968) and 288 (1969). However, the general pattern seems to be stable, with most institutions conducting programs for around ten to twenty new faculty members each year.

PLANNING THE ORIENTATION PROGRAM

Few of the studies to date have investigated an important element in planning and conducting orientation programs — involvement. The responsibility for planning the orientation appears to be diffused throughout the institution, but a central figure in most orientation planning is the dean. Eighty-eight per cent of all institutions reported that the dean was involved in planning their orientation; significantly, individual faculty members were involved in planning almost two-thirds of the programs. Also used for planning was the faculty committee (52 per cent) or the faculty-administration committee (58 per cent). And, in over 62 per cent of the cases, the presidents were also involved in planning the orientation programs.

Figure 2 indicates a hypothetical planning configuration for an orientation program.

FIGURE 2
ORIENTATION PLANNING — SPATIAL CONFIGURATION



CONDUCTING THE ORIENTATION PROGRAM

The actual conducting of the orientation program seems to follow the pattern used in planning; and the rank ordering of involvement in planning and conducting orientation (Table III) demonstrates a definite interrelationship. Most institutions involved faculty in the planning of orientation programs; fewer, although still a majority, succeeded in involving

TABLE III
INVOLVEMENT IN PLANNING AND CONDUCTING ORIENTATION PROGRAMS

Category	Involved in Planning in Percentage of Colleges	Rank	Involved in Conducting in Percentage of Colleges	Rank
Dean	88.46	1	73.56	1
Individual	64.42	2	51.20	2
President	62.25	3	49.28	3
Faculty/adm. comm.	57.68	4	45.43	5
Chairman	52.88	5	37.02	4
Faculty comm.	51.92	6	31.73	6

them in conducting the programs. However, 43 per cent of the institutions *did not* involve faculty in planning their programs, and 51 per cent *did not* involve them in conducting the sessions.

Use of Consultants in the Orientation Program. Consultants are among the people involved in conducting the orientations. In the sample, about half the colleges (46 per cent) used the help of consultants, most of whom were either community college administrators (reported by 91 per cent of the colleges), professors of higher education, or "outside" community college faculty. The remainder included individuals from private consulting firms (25 per cent), student personnel specialists (10 per cent), state officials, and representatives of the community (less than 1 per cent).

Orientation Activities. The activities that made up the orientation programs in two-year colleges varied all the way from sensitivity training to credit-courses for new faculty on the nature of the junior college. Generally, the scope of activities is limited and consists of speeches, social gatherings, and tours. Most of the experiences were vicarious, with little actual contact between the new faculty and older faculty, students, or trustees. Presentations were almost always used in orientation programs. The content of these was varied, and will be discussed in greater depth later. What is significant at this point, however, is who generally makes the presentations.

Nature of the Activities. The activities of orientation programs were assessed in two ways: (1) by a list of relatively commonplace activities that was designed to ascertain the number of institutions including them (Table V); and (2) by a relatively open-ended question which was intended to gather unrestricted replies. The question was: *Would you please check, and then briefly describe, all the activities formally planned as part of your orientation.* The activities come under the headings of orientation to community, trustees, colleagues, students, salary and fringe benefits, problems facing the college, college learning resources,

TABLE IV
ORIENTATION PRESENTATIONS

Given By	Percentage of Institutions Using Them in Orientation
President	97.81
Administrators	88.94
Trustees	40.64
Consultants	45.73
Government representatives	20.91

and college grading system. The responses are discussed below and give some insight into the process of the orientation programs and the methods of communicating specific information.

Orientation to Campus Facilities. Eighty-one per cent of the institutions having formal orientation sessions indicated that they introduced new faculty to the campus by some method. The most common means was a tour, used by approximately 52 per cent of the schools; a presentation regarding the facilities was made by the president, a dean, or a vice-president in slightly more than 25 per cent of the institutions. Other methods were negligible, and 23.37 per cent of the respondents did not reply to this item.

Orientation to the Community. The tour was used to introduce new faculty to their community environment by approximately 36 per cent of the institutions. However, almost two-thirds did not introduce new faculty to the community in any way at all. Presentations about the community by the president and some faculty were used by the colleges that did not arrange tours. Thirty-one per cent of the respondents did not indicate their method in this case.

Orientation to Trustees. A slight majority of the institutions (53 per cent) did acquaint new faculty with board members. However, only about

TABLE V
ORIENTATION ACTIVITIES

Activities	Percentage of Institutions Including Them in Orientation
Meetings with students	89.90
Social gatherings	88.46
Participation in small groups	88.46
Campus tours	84.13
Tours of the community	59.85

half (51 per cent) accomplished this by face-to-face faculty-trustee contact. Thirty-two per cent classified their contact as a "presentation." Evidently little interaction — in fact, only *formal* personal contact — takes place between trustees and faculty during most orientations in two-year colleges. Slightly more than 12 per cent of the respondents indicated that trustees greeted new faculty, and 7 per cent stated that trustees were introduced to new faculty at a luncheon. Twenty-five per cent did not indicate the method used for this purpose.

Orientation to Colleagues. Although 32 per cent of the institutions stated that they planned some formal introduction of new faculty to their colleagues, only half reported how they did it. (Very possibly, institutions assume that this is a "side effect" of any program.) Group meetings and luncheons were common devices, and in about 10 per cent of the cases, presentations were used to introduce new faculty.

Orientation to Students. Almost 30 per cent of the two-year colleges surveyed have no systematic way of presenting the new faculty to the student body; it is equally revealing that only 16 per cent stated that they accomplished their orientation to students in group meetings. Only 1 per cent introduced students and faculty at a student social. In sum, only about 18 per cent of the new faculty in the fall of 1969 at the sample colleges were provided with systematic data about students before they encountered them in class. Where data were provided, they were usually given by the dean of students or director of personnel services (almost half the colleges giving student information covered it this way). A quarter relied on a handbook, and less than 10 per cent formed a panel of faculty and staff (with no students) to accomplish this.

Orientation to Salary and Fringe Benefits. Whereas only 18 per cent of the colleges responding felt it necessary to orient new faculty to the student body, 88 per cent felt it necessary to orient them to salary and fringe benefits. A little over one-third (37 per cent) provided this information through a handbook or manual, and the remainder offered presentations by such administrative officers as the president, vice-president, dean, or business manager. One-quarter did not report how they informed new faculty about this subject.

Orientation to Problems Facing the College. Approximately two-thirds of the institutions explored with new faculty the problems facing the college. Most (81 per cent) did this through a presentation by the president, vice-president, or dean.

Orientation to the College's Learning Resources. Institutions that provided some overt orientation to the college's learning resources (72 per cent) did so with a presentation by the librarian in over half the cases. Only 3 per cent used another specialist to convey the information, and less than 1 per cent conducted a tour or held a faculty workshop on learning resources.

Orientation to the College Grading System. Slightly over half the institutions (54 per cent) attempted to acquaint new faculty with the college grading system during orientation. Of this group, almost a third accomplished this through the faculty handbook. Of those institutions that did discuss grading, 34 per cent used a presentation by the dean and 9 per cent, a presentation by the registrar.

Earlier items in the survey presented questions aimed at determining the activities and content of the orientation programs of the two-year colleges. As a point of comparison, the respondents were later asked to delineate some of the major topics covered in their programs. The responses were unstructured but perhaps give a better indication of institutional priorities than a structured, less flexible questionnaire-type instrument would have allowed.

TABLE VI
TOPICS OF ORIENTATION

Rank	Topic	Number of Responses	Percentage of Institutions Including It as a Major Topic
1.	Guidance and counseling	233	56.4
2.	Junior college philosophy	198	47.2
3.	Salaries	183	43.4
4.	Library learning resources	141	33.4
5.	Policies and procedures	106	25.2
6.	Admissions and registration	85	20.4
7.	Tours of campus	69	16.5
8.	Financial aid	62	14.9
9.	Responsibility of new faculty	53	12.7
10.	College calendar	38	9.1
11.	Teaching methods	32	7.6
12.	Disadvantaged students	27	6.4
13.	Tests and testing	24	5.7
14.	Faculty participation	18	4.3
14.	Benefits	18	4.3
16.	Reading course	15	3.6
17.	Curriculum	14	3.3
17.	Grading system	14	3.3
19.	Business affairs	13	3.1
19.	Teaching in community college	13	3.1
21.	Teacher evaluation	11	2.6
22.	Student learning	10	2.4
22.	Film uses of media and audio visual resources	10	2.4
24.	Evaluation of the institutions	9	2.2
25.	President's welcoming speech	8	1.9
25.	Purchasing	8	1.9
27-44.	Miscellaneous (18 topics)	1-6	

The responses are actually an assemblage of topics *and* activities, and a brief exploration of these reveals some interesting contrasts. For example, the subjects of "teaching methodology," "teaching in a community college," and "the student" were not included in the first ten topics. "Faculty evaluation" ranks twenty-first, and "adult education" — commonly defined as one of the four major responsibilities of the community college — ranks thirty-fourth. A very encouraging note, however, particularly for student personnel workers, is the large number of institutions that include "counseling and guidance" as a major topic in their orientation programs.

Evaluation of Orientation Programs. The orientation programs were evaluated in two-thirds of the institutions responding. The distribution of evaluation techniques is given in Table VII.

TABLE VII

Rank	Technique	Percentage of Institutions Using It
1.	Review by administrative council and faculty committee	37
2.	Questionnaire	27
3.	Discussions with participants	16
4.	Discussions by participants	11
5.	Informal expressions from faculty	7
6.	Statewide standard evaluation	1
7.	Impressions of incumbent faculty	1
		100%

Faculty Development. Since the model of orientation proposed in Chapter V is based upon orientation as a socialization process and as a continuing learning program, information regarding faculty development programs was also sought through the questionnaire.

As indicated in Table VIII, slightly over half the institutions in the sample are currently conducting a faculty development program. Since the question did not define what was meant by faculty development, their scope of activity and degree of sophistication are no doubt extremely varied. Some of the activities included in these programs are shown in Table IX. It should be noted, however, that on the whole the development programs focus on more critical issues than do the orientations. Whether this is simply because the more sophisticated institutions have programs and recognize priorities or whether it is a characteristic of faculty development programs generally is a moot question.

TABLE VIII
STATUS OF FACULTY DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMS

	Percentage
We have a plan in operation.	56
We will place a plan in effect this year.	13
We are developing a plan for the future.	24
We have no plans for faculty development.	6
No answer.	1
	100%

TABLE IX
ACTIVITIES INCLUDED IN FACULTY DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMS

Rank	Activity	Institutions Including It in Faculty Development	
		Number	Percentage
1.	In-service workshops on uses of media	438	90
2.	On-the-job improvement in subject area	412	85
3.	Discussion of the functions and philosophy of the junior-community college	411	85
4.	Information and assistance in grant pursuit	335	69
5.	Opportunity to visit other institutons	333	69
6.	Exposure to the educational needs, life style, etc., of disadvantaged students	323	66
7.	Funds for travel to national and regional meetings of the American Association of Junior Colleges	320	66
8.	Subscriptions to professional journals supplied by the college	296	61
9.	Funds for travel to scholarly or professional meetings	229	47
10.	Departmental cooperation with other colleges on subject matter articulation	217	45
11.	Discussion of the history and nature of the two-year college	216	44
12.	Introducing faculty to educational uses of computers	212	44
13.	Training in special techniques for teaching adults	142	29
14.	Information on the needs and characteristics of the adult learner	96	20
15.	Special programs for new department chairmen	92	19

COMMENTARY

One weakness of many current orientation programs is their brevity. A one- or two-day period can hardly be considered adequate for passing along the myriad data, let alone communicating the role specifications that are necessary for satisfactory adaptation of new faculty members. The more extended programs provide an opportunity for continuity between "orientation" and "development" and offer more time for the various activities included in orientation.

If we accept the premise that incumbent faculty members will be the primary agents for socialization of new faculty and that they can be active agents in transmitting institutional values and reinforcing role behaviors, then it would seem that the present orientation patterns contain a major flaw. To feel that administrators alone — or supplemented by consultants of any kind — can successfully initiate new personnel into being effective members of the faculty is indeed a naively optimistic hope. Most of the professional contact that faculty members have will be with their colleagues, who will also be their role models and will provide most of the rewards, especially in the interpersonal realm. In other words, most of their socialization to the organization will result from their interaction with fellow faculty members.

To neglect to systematically plan and lead such interaction during the initial days on campus creates a kind of artificial boundary between orientation and realistic adaptation to the institution. It should not be surprising, therefore, that the orientation period itself, and much of the information and perceptions associated with it, becomes segmented from the true process of socialization. In this process, the use of outside agents for socialization seems contrary to what is known about the potential usefulness of "in-house" development. Moreover, the background of various consultants seems to reinforce the concept of orientation as primarily a process led by those in positions of authority — whether inside or outside of the institution — talking to those in positions of relatively less authority who are entering the institution.

Both the personnel and structure favored in the survey imply that orientations are usually impositions rather than assimilations. Also indicated by our data is the apparent, if latent, belief that faculty do not know the institution well enough. If this is true, our colleges are on a collision course; if it is not true, they are failing to tap the unlimited potential for socialization of new members.

The perceptions of college issues presented were of "administrative-institutional problems," and these perceptions will no doubt differ depending on the position of the person doing the evaluating. Administration is usually concerned about broad areas, and rightly so, while the faculty members are usually more concerned with the classroom or student-faculty relations. As a result, the new faculty member may receive one interpretation of problems during orientation and a different, although more realistic, interpretation as he gets to know his colleagues. Once again, this creates an aura of artificiality around the orientation period and makes the new faculty member aware of the difference between administration and faculty. This situation may well contribute to the "credibility gap" that so often exists between the two.

In addition, many of our institutions are apparently overlooking the gains that might be made by incumbent faculty who have not hitherto accepted the institution's philosophy. During the process of orienting new faculty, the satisfactions provided by a sense of involvement, enthusiasm for the college, and commitment to the objectives of the college could be a very rewarding experience for the older faculty. The opportunity for them to be active participants as well as leaders in such a process would be tremendously beneficial to the institution and to the faculty.

Rosenberg (45), Festinger (15), and others have postulated the theory of cognitive dissonance which, briefly stated, is "subscription, by the individual, to ideas, beliefs, or attitudes that are incompatible, inconsistent, or irreconcilable" (8:314). This theory is an attempt to explain the changes in beliefs that often occur after a person speaks or behaves in a fashion contrary to his current belief pattern. To maintain consistency, and to prevent psychological dissonance, the belief pattern is frequently altered. We are no doubt also familiar with the changes often yielded by the process of involvement itself. Vociferous opponents of a point of view, if involved in the creation of a new view, often become its vociferous supporters.

Another apparent weakness of orientation programs is that the institutions neglect to disseminate information pertaining to the grading philosophy and policies. It is not difficult to imagine the confusion in the minds — and grading systems — of new faculty who are confronted by their first grading period with no previous acquaintance with the system they are to use.

There appears to be some contradiction between those institutions stating that their activities included meetings with students and the approximately 18 per cent reporting group meetings as the means of orienting faculty to students. Evidently the meetings are often scheduled as a social activity and are not considered a primary means for orienting the faculty. It appears too that information about students is disseminated by a student personnel officer, and the student as an individual is disregarded — especially in terms of assisting faculty to know people like himself. Although the information provided by a dean can be meaningful and can offer an overall picture of the characteristics of the student body, it seems that such information could be reinforced or brought to life more vividly by student contact. Tautological though it may be, the best way to know students is to know students.

Virtually the same situation exists in the case of trustees and other faculty, giving the impression that orientations are usually vicarious rather than real experiences. There is little effort to immerse new faculty in actual or similated conditions, nor is much energy devoted to structuring contact with other members of the college community.

Finally, most programs are not evaluated in valid or meaningful ways; it would be presumptuous to assume that an administrative committee assessment is valid. Therefore, if evaluations are conducted, by what criteria can they be measured? Do we set objectives? If we do, can they be measured — preferably in behavioral (role specification) terms? Some institutions (those that involve participants in program evaluation) do reap the reward of reinforcement of the information and norms set forth in the orientation, however. Re-examination of the experiences, either alone or with others, can be as great a mechanism for learning as it is for evaluation.

SURVEY HIGHLIGHTS

Most programs are one or two days in length and the dean generally plays the predominant role in planning and conducting the program. The president and faculty are involved about equally, although over two-fifths of the colleges surveyed do not use faculty as part of the orientation planning teams, and more than half do not involve faculty in conducting the programs. Less than half the colleges use outside consultants, and when employed, they are mainly community college administrators and professors of higher education. The president and other administrators typically make presentations at orientation sessions.

Orientation to the campus, accomplished by a tour in approximately half the colleges, is included in most programs, but an orientation to the community is found in just slightly more than a third of the programs. Only 25 per cent of new faculty members have any formal or informal contact with board members during the orientation program; less than 20 per cent have any personal encounter with students at this time; and almost 30 per cent are in no way informed about the student body they are to teach. The most nearly universal orientation topic is salary and fringe benefits, and approximately half the colleges acquaint new faculty with the college grading system; guidance, counseling, and junior college philosophy, in addition, are topics often indicated as "major" areas for orientation. Two-thirds of the institutions evaluate their orientation programs, mostly by committee review. Slightly over half the colleges in the sample operate faculty development programs, the most common areas in these programs being the uses of media, improvement in subject area, and the functions and philosophy of the junior-community college.

A MODEL FOR NEW FACULTY ORIENTATION

chapter 5

Candidates for faculty positions in two-year colleges might assume that their major concern is what they are to teach and how they are to teach it. But an analysis of the job-entry experiences of new faculty as well as post-orientation reports indicates that considerable numbers of new faculty are unaware of other important factors that will affect their performance in this new career situation. With little exposure to the dynamics of the two-year institution, new faculty are at a disadvantage. Garrison (17) noted in his survey of faculty that they were "vaguely informed" about the nature of the college to which they were committing themselves. Many faculty realized afterwards—unfortunately—that they *should* have had more than a casual briefing on particular institutional practices such as the types of instructional problems they would face. One new instructor said:

> . . . But when I met my first class a couple of days later, I certainly realized how little I knew that I should have known. The students were, in many ways, very different from anything I expected . . . it took me about a semester to get my bearing and to have some kind of realistic notion about what this college is trying to do, and my part in it (17:47).

The orientation effort of any two-year college should be many things. Depending on the institution's current press and the characteristics of its new personnel, the overall goal of an orientation program should be to assist the new faculty in becoming actual members of the organization and to help them adapt to their new role. To accomplish this, orientation must facilitate a personal transition and help the individual understand the dimensions of his job responsibility, his role in the context of the types of students to be taught, and the occupational and interpersonal style of his new environment.

Much of the research and many of the orientation programs reported in Chapter IV indicate a commonality in models for program content. As the subjects of orientation, faculty members expressed similar opinions about content, and two points stand out: (1) there have been few systematic attempts to analyze and evaluate orientation; and (2) there has been a minimal effort given to delivering the kind of orientation package requested by the faculty.

One attempt to glean suggested content from faculty members who are recently experiencing the two-year institution is exemplified by the Professional Development Project (PDP). This project was funded by the New York State Department of Education under the auspices of a Vocational Educational Act Grant (26). As part of the project, an extensive in-depth survey of orientation programs was organized. This survey was programmed into a series of five regional conferences held on community college campuses in which both newly hired faculty and veteran faculty (those who had been teaching in a two-year college for at least four years) were invited to report their views regarding the positive and negative aspects of orientation. Participants recalled their own experiences during orientation and proposed content for a model orientation program.

At each of the conferences, orientation proposals were drawn together, elaborated, and refined. The eventual effect of this extensive collaboration by 109 faculty from thirty-five two-year colleges was to generate a three-part framework for the orientation of faculty entering the junior college for the first time. "Must" topics were delineated as (1) the functional place of the two-year college as an institution, (2) the role of the faculty member, and (3) the student in the two-year college. The inherent, overall objective was to assist new faculty members in every way possible to become more aware of themselves both as teachers and as participants in the junior college.

The Two-Year College as an Institution. The topic, "the two-year college as an institution," generally rates high priority. New faculty usually realize — after having some experience in the institution — that they need to understand the history and the evolution of the two-year college. Institutional variations and differences in character and focus from one campus to another can be confusing. Moreover, faculty have varying interpretations of the open-door policy, the meaning of institutional autonomy, and the nature of evolving relationships with other public and private colleges. Comprehensiveness, as a general concept, also requires some definition. Community colleges do not need to add to the roster of functions; rather — as new faculty frequently will say — some of its parameters should be more precisely delineated.

The Role of the Faculty Member. The faculty member in a junior college, to name a few of his functions, acts as a communicator, an advisor of students, a model for those who would emulate his life style and career pattern, and a colleague to other faculty and staff.

> The faculty member, I realize, is more than a classroom instructor . . . it was brought out that a faculty member has many more obligations than merely teaching. I became fully aware of this after my first month of work (26).

The demands of effective teaching require that instructors have information about the students they will teach, although a considerable number of new appointees have almost no frame of reference by which to begin building or planning their course presentations. Nor do they have a gauge by which to knowingly evaluate student performance. They have few measures for judging the reality of the expectations they consciously pronounce for students, and in short, they often learn what junior college students are like by trial and error.

The Student in the Two-Year College. The PDP group urged that orientation programs devote considerable time to analyses of student data, sample profiles, anecdotal reports by experienced faculty, and reports from admissions or the dean of students office. Student panels provide an exposure to particular issues that can be described in no adequate way other than through direct confrontation with the students themselves. Such issues include the constraints imposed by living at home and working part time, the problems of a tight schedule, limited time for campus activity, and little relief from educational styles known throughout most of one's school years. The efforts to brief new faculty about students should be successful and accurate: specific information is very important, especially to ward off later disillusionment with students or with oneself.

> Hearing from students themselves about their hang-ups on the community college, as well as its positive aspects, was the most valuable component for me (PDP participant).

> Emphasize — for those who *have* taught before — that the two-year college student is very different from students they have taught in the past (PDP participant).

THE ORIENTATION PROCESS

As was noted above, all the evidence suggests that there are at least three areas of concentration that need to be covered in the orientation program. First is the *institution*. The faculty member must know the institution, its objectives, and its philosophy if his role is to have sense and meaning and if he is to meet satisfactorily the demands of this role. In addition, the institution must be seen in the context of its immediate environment (the community) and the national environment (history, development, and current issues). It must be placed in a perspective that engenders total understanding of the college — where it has been, what it is doing, and where it is going.

An understanding of the institution and the students is necessary for the faculty member to comprehend *his* role and *its* demands. This dimension involves the idea he has of his role as he performs in class, as advisor to the students, as a member of both the college and general communities, and as a colleague to other faculty and administrators.

Comprehending the *students* is the third area of importance in orienting the new faculty member to the junior college. Learning about the students through a process of trial and error is a waste of human resources and sometimes a tragedy for some students who are subjected to this. The new faculty member can and should know more than a demographic description in order to understand, appreciate, and empathize with the students' personal and vocational goals as well as their life styles.

BEFORE THE PROGRAM

Certain characteristics of the program — for instance, the way it is planned — may be as important as the content and actual format of the orientation proceedings. There are many factors that set the stage for the entrance of a new faculty member — entering the organization, adapting to it, and leaving it should all be viewed as stages in the process of the continuing development of an effective faculty.

The point at which a person begins to form his image of the anticipated place of employment is often difficult to ascertain, although this probably happens during his first contact. At Sullins College (Virginia), six to eight hours are devoted to the employment interview and tours of the campus and community. Stripling (51) has identified a number of procedures that, while not a part of the formal orientation, may nonetheless be in initial catalysts in the process of assimilation and socialization. These include:

a. *personal* letters of welcome (not form letters)

b. a supply of up-to-date printed materials: a faculty handbook, a guide to the city, samples of academic and administrative forms used, student handbook, information relative to student personnel services, general regulations, and information pertaining to faculty counseling

c. a summer newsletter

d. a copy of the local newspaper

e. a copy of the campus newspaper

f. personal information regarding housing, schools, shopping, etc., for the new faculty member's family

g. assistance in securing housing, loans, etc.

The present model for orientation proposes that an important element — in fact, one of the keystones of any organized socialization effort — is the "buddy" or sponsor system. There may be a number of modifications, but basically this means the assignment of a senior faculty member to a new faculty member for the orientation period — whether for a day or a year. Many of the instructors in Eaton's sample (10) reported using such a device; Richards (44) reported this as a feasible "critical incident" that assisted instructors in adapting to their new institution. Colleges in our sample that reported using this device included: Northampton Area Community College (Pennsylvania), Mt. Hood Community College (Oregon), Delta College (Michigan), Edison Junior College (Florida), Foothill College (California), Long Beach City College (California), Wytheville Community College (Virginia), and DeKalb College (Georgia).

The sponsor system provides the new instructor with reinforcement and a role model. Although he may later seek a different model or models, he is not faced with the awkward task of searching for such a person during his first few weeks on campus, a period when he has myriad details demanding attention. The sponsor provides information that has been gained from experience and familiarity with the institution; thus the new faculty member is not always in an "asking" position since assistance is available to him whenever he needs it. This will help to convince him that others in the institution are interested in him and will aid his movement into the institution as well as engender a positive image and sense of community.

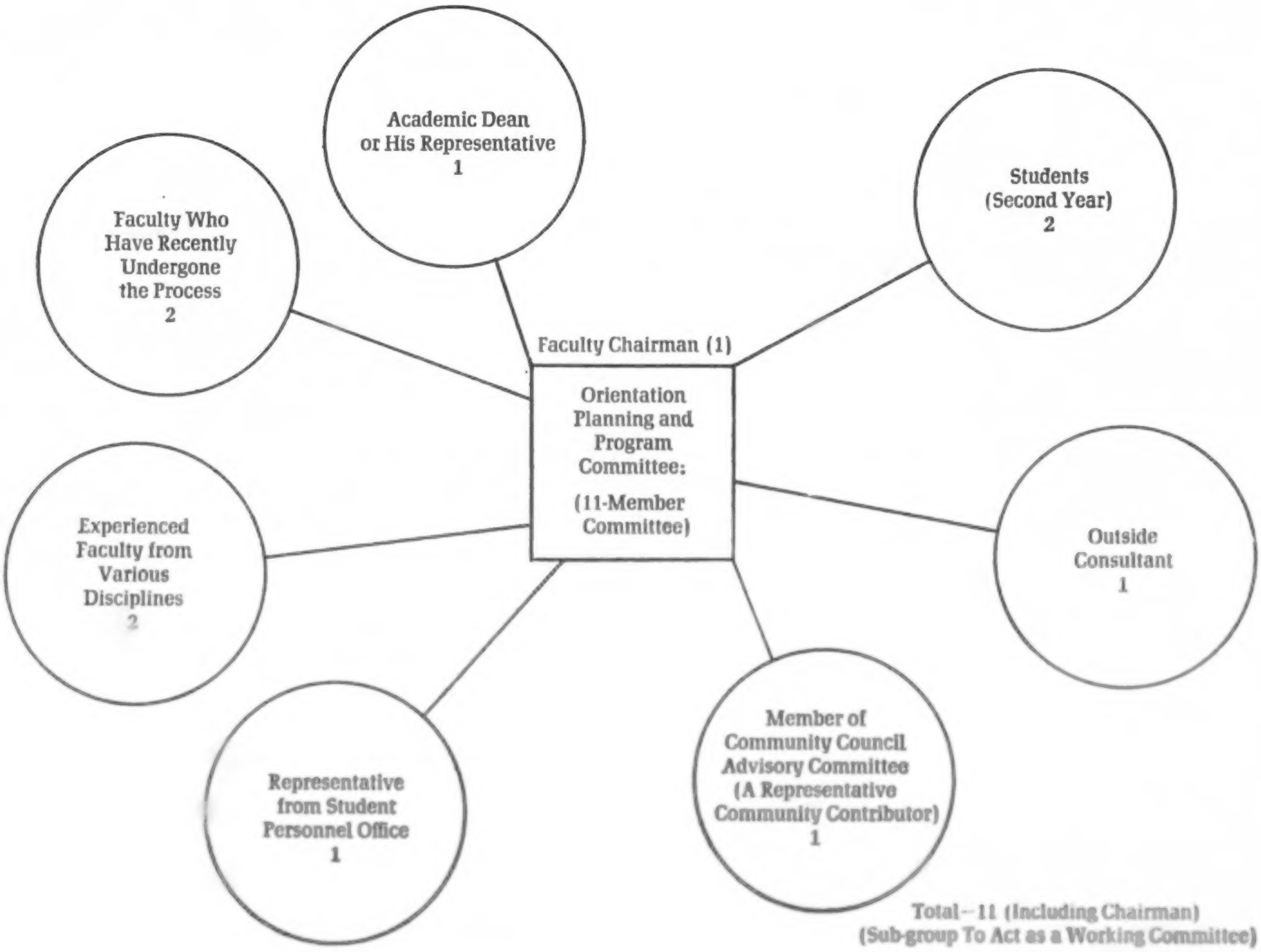
PLANNING THE ORIENTATION PROGRAM

Planning the program will include some of the same elements as planning new courses, school curricula, or special workshops. (Interested individuals are brought together: they agree upon objectives, decide on procedures for attaining the objectives, and ways of evaluating whether or not the objectives have been attained.) There is some evidence that has been reported to reveal the "top heavy" nature of planning, however. Some persons — for example, faculty members — who contribute immensely to the planning process have not been involved enough in either the planning or the subsequent program implementation. However, Laban Peachey, President of Hesston College (Kansas), replied to our inquiries as follows: "Our group is small enough that we had fellow teachers initiate new faculty in the basics of our campus patterns and work at our faculty retreat." This should be the aim of orientation planners on all campuses, large and small.

Facilitating new faculty members' entry into the community college is more effective when influenced and guided by present faculty rather than by administrators. Adaptation and a smooth transition depends in large measure on identification with colleges, and it is only reasonable, therefore, for those colleagues to contribute to the planning of the orientation. The same may be said for involvement in the program itself. Planning should also take into consideration the backgrounds of new faculty members. The experienced teacher who has been for several years in similar institutions has different needs from the recent graduate student, the businessman, or the retired military officer. And by the same token, though there are certain things to be learned about the institution, these cannot all be discovered in the same way.

Figure 1 shows how the planning and program committee for the faculty orientation could be made up.

FIGURE 1
PLANNING COMMITTEE FOR ORIENTATION PROGRAM



Total—11 (Including Chairman)
(Sub-group To Act as a Working Committee)

DURATION OF THE PROGRAM

When time boundaries are set for orientation, an artificial delineation is created since orientation, as a socialization process, is not completed by the time the orientation workshop ends. Richards (44:105) has reported, however, that faculty members object to orientation meetings that are too long. The Professional Development Project participants suggested two and one-half days as an ideal (short term) orientation period, but

Pettibone's study (40) prompted him to conclude that brief, initial orientations are almost worthless unless they are subsequently followed by meaningful sessions held at designated times during the year.

Many orientation programs span a period of four or five days because of college staff attempts to communicate voluminous amounts of information to the new faculty members. Much of this information can instead be put in writing and mailed to people prior to the formal meetings so that the material can be digested more easily. (Faculty members have indicated in numerous reports that too much is presented too soon.) Some reports suggest that an orientation period of longer than two or three days tends to create boredom and fatigue. It would seem wise, therefore, to stay within a three-day limit, which does not detract from further consideration of Pettibone's point. The length of orientation can be gauged by its goals — if extensive socialization is to be accomplished, it will take a longer time, whereas if a comprehensive faculty development effort is initiated, the early meetings need deal with only the most important topics.

The meeting days should be selected carefully. They do not have to be concurrent; indeed, a brief respite between formal meetings may result in more attentive and receptive participants. Faculty respondents in Richards' study indicated that orientation meetings were sometimes held during teaching hours after the semester had begun. Obviously, some meetings should be held prior to first classes and should be conducted at times when all new faculty are available to participate.

THE BEGINNING OF ORIENTATION

Orientation begins before the person even sets foot on campus. The college has an obligation to project itself to potential candidates as early and as accurately as possible, and failure to do so can encourage feelings of disinterest on the part of the staff. Time devoted to potential candidates nets a return in human investment, regardless of eventual employment, and the time that is devoted to those candidates who are hired may have great bearings on their perceptions of their new employer as well as the psychological set they have regarding the college.

The first formal contact after interest has been established — typically by letter — should not be merely an administrative interview. The candidate may be given a tour of the campus, preferably by a faculty member from the department he aspires to, or by a student. He should also have the opportunity for lengthy discussions with faculty members and his department chairman. Someone should inform him about specific aspects of the community in which he will be living, also. What housing is available? What will it cost? Where are schools located? What graduate programs are accessible? What kinds of cultural, recreational, and intellectual opportunities are available for him and his family?

After the contract verifying employment has been received, the new faculty member should also receive various materials to acquaint him with the demands of his new position so that he may take the time, at his own convenience, to become familiar with the college's policies and procedures before he reports for his first formal orientation.

TIMING

The core of the orientation and development program is the pre-semester meeting. Many of the events can be programmed during a two- or three-day period and some postponed for a later one-day session in the ongoing development program, the "mix" depending on immediate institutional and personnel priorities. The present model proposes a minimum of five days of in-service development spaced over a period beginning in late August and terminating in late May. (See Figure 2.) Assuming the candidate has been officially invited by the college to join the professional staff, the crucial factor now becomes the process by which he is brought face to face with the dynamics of his new environment. The pre-semester meeting should include the following components:

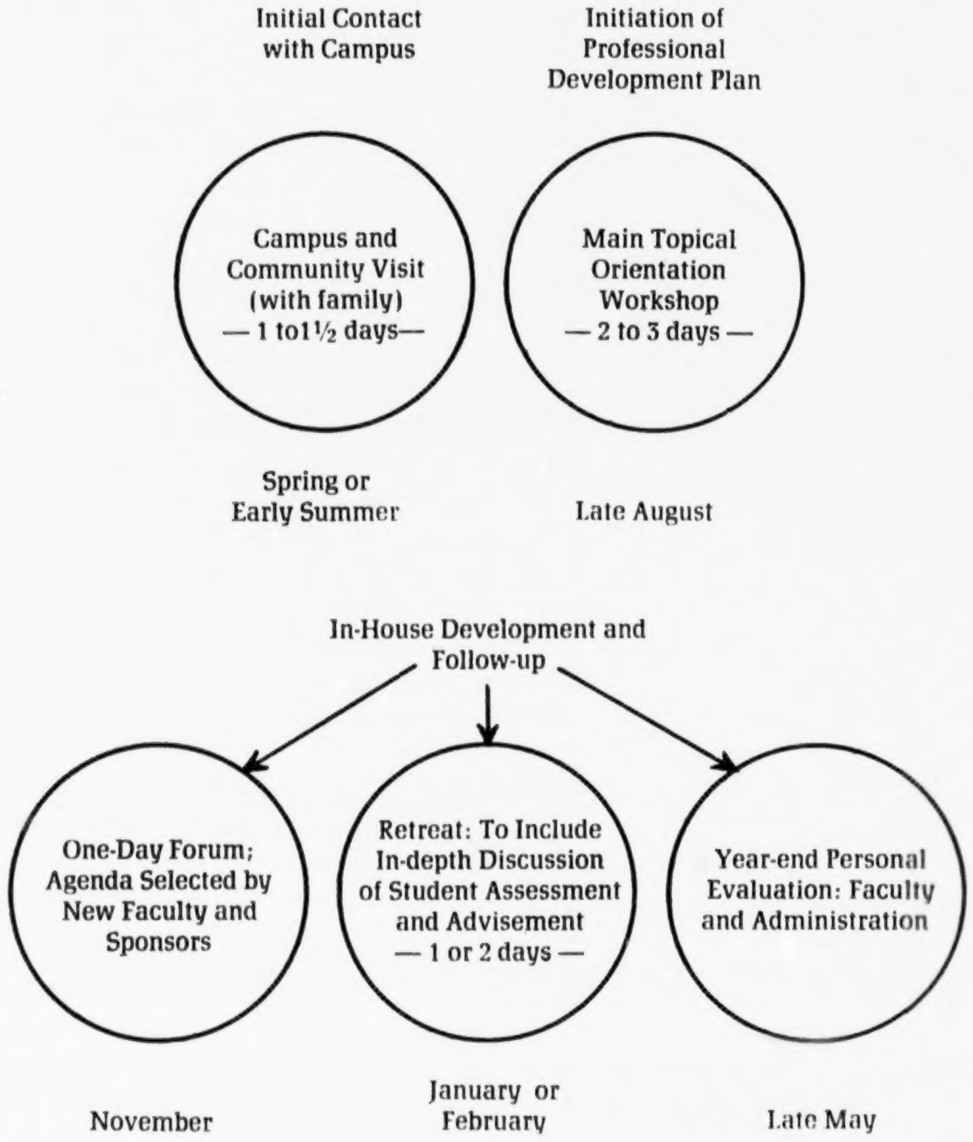
1. *Dialogue with new colleagues about the purposes and "reason for being" of the college.* This dialogue can be enriched by the perspective of interested trustees and members of the support community (i.e., individuals from various advisory groups). All of the feedback on present orientation programs affirms the need for group sessions that are guided, but not directed, by a core of knowledgeable persons; this means more reliance on participation and less on speeches.

2. *Examination and interpretation of data about the characteristics of the college's student population, as well as some background on the ecology of the college and the community.* This should be supported by the presence (and participation) of students during the orientation proceedings.

3. *Opportunity for various inputs concerning the dimensions of the faculty member's role.* This means leaving room for differing views. For example, how do the counselors and members of the dean of students' office view the teachers? What do they consider effective? How do they handle the feedback they get from complaining — and sometimes praising — students? What is the department chairman's perspective? Is it similar to the way the dean or the president views the teacher? And what about the interpretations of faculty role by a panel of students? Throughout all of this, the interface of experienced colleagues with the new colleague will be continually stressed.

The second meeting would perhaps take place in November (see Figure 2), at which time the new faculty member has had enough experience and exposure to the college situation to decide the particular kinds of professional assistance he needs most. A one-day session would deal with emergent problems that have been identified by the new faculty member and his sponsor. Even partial resolution of these would facilitate adjustment to new role demands, some of which could be creating needless

FIGURE 2
ORIENTATION SEQUENCE


Initial Contact with Campus
Initiation of Professional Development Plan
Campus and Community Visit (with family) — 1 to 1½ days—
Main Topical Orientation Workshop — 2 to 3 days —
Spring or Early Summer
Late August
In-House Development and Follow-up
One-Day Forum; Agenda Selected by New Faculty and Sponsors
Retreat: To Include In-depth Discussion of Student Assessment and Advisement — 1 or 2 days —
Year-end Personal Evaluation: Faculty and Administration
November
January or February
Late May

pressure and conflict. In addition, the new faculty member would have identified many gaps in his knowledge of the institution and its students.

By mid-year (or between semesters), a one- or two-day retreat would focus on the more complex issues of advisement, classroom versatility, and student assessment. Plans for correcting misunderstandings and developing strengths could be made in cooperation with the professional counseling staff, the media, and/or instructional aides, staff, and even outside consultants. The retreat atmosphere, undisturbed and away from the institution and its problems, allows time for professional contemplation as well as problem solving. It may function as a "binding" experience, where people come to know one another as people rather than as titles or simply teachers in certain departments. Examples of this type of program are: Flathead Valley Community College (Montana) has a retreat at a local dude ranch; Lower Columbia College (Washington) encourages new faculty and their families to spend two days at a local "Y" camp; one of the New York Metropolitan two-year colleges has a retreat at a hotel for a weekend.

Consultants can be used at this point. An individual consultant or a team can attend to the work of arranging program details that will allow all of the college personnel the opportunity of becoming participating equals. Management games, role playing, simulation, and other methods used by businesses in their seminars can be modified for use with college faculty. The American Association of Junior Colleges is presently utilizing, very successfully, a private consulting firm to organize and manage a series of learning and instructional retreats.

The culminating event of the orientation-development program should be a one-day period of recall, assessment, and planning. The original objectives of the program should be discussed in terms of semester realities for the individual faculty member, and an assessment of whether or not the objectives have been attained should be made by both planners and participants. The structural elements of the program should also be evaluated, especially in terms of their contribution to or interference with the total orientation program. This program need not be the same for all new faculty nor the same each year. The Tarrant Junior College District (Texas) and Ottumwa Heights Junior College (Iowa), for example, have separate developmental programs for different departments, each reflecting the needs of the faculty in that area; Chesapeake College (Maryland) works out an "individual master plan for professional development" for each faculty member.

GOALS, PREMISES, AND EVENTS

In the discussion below, several basic goals of orientation are designated, with a statement of the premises on which they are based; various activities that have taken place on certain community college campuses, or that have been suggested as possible activities for planners to consider, are also included. Not all of the events listed can be condensed into a single orientation period, nor do they need to be. Some goals demand immediate attention on particular campuses and others are better achieved after the instructors have been on the job for a period of time. All will depend on the characteristics of the college and its new faculty, which is further reason for spacing the orientation.

Specifically, local orientation information in printed form can explain board policies, various college regulations, fringe benefits, grading procedures, financial support, salary and promotional information, etc. All of these can be found in any good faculty handbook. But what is not usually found is an introduction to the world of the junior college beyond a one-campus perspective.

The model for orientation suggested here, while preserving local orientation content, urges that this "beyond the trees" view be emphasized. While not minimizing the need for the new faculty member to know the score on his own campus, it is also crucial for him to understand the occupational milieu of the comprehensive community college in the 1970's and the national picture of community college issues. In sum, the broadest possible view of education beyond the high school needs to be engendered. The goals, premises, and a sampling of events that have taken place on various college campuses, or are suggested for orientation programs, are shown below:

* * *

Goal I: To develop in new faculty members a knowledge and appreciation of the history, philosophy, and goals of community colleges in general and their institution in particular.

Premises: Generally the new faculty member has very little knowledge about the development and historical background of the two-year college as it relates to and is distinct from other segments of American higher education. Similarly, he has limited information about the history and development of the particular college with which he is now associated, and he is seldom acquainted with the state or local district system with which his institution is affiliated or the basis of financial and political support and control of the college. The objectives and goals of the college and the particular mix of students to whom he must relate are usually not clear to him either.

Events.

1. Films, such as the one funded by AAJC and Sears, Roebuck Foundation — "The Now Colleges" (this was used in many of the orientations reported in the present survey).

2. Panel discussions wherein veteran faculty can react to the college president's stated views of the college's philosophy, purposes, and function.

3. Video tape interview on objectives and purposes of two-year colleges (such a tape is produced by the TV College of Chicago City College).

4. Panel discussions such as the one presented by Middlesex County College, New Jersey, on "The Social and Political Environment of Middlesex County." Panelists included the mayor, a professor of political science from a neighboring university, a hospital director, and a newspaper editor.

5. A dinner for faculty and board members, such as the one sponsored by Wytheville Community College in Virginia.

6. Film and panel discussion; Vincennes University, Indiana, used "Issues in Education" followed by a faculty panel discussion of the film.

7. Group discussion; "The Role and Purpose of the Community Junior College" and "Curricula Programs for Junior Colleges" were topics used by Kendall College, Illinois, for group discussion meetings.

8. Small groups made up of three students and six faculty discussed purposes, functions, and objectives at Mesabi Community College, Minnesota.

9. A presentation of "Our Community" was made at Boise State College by the executive vice president of the Chamber of Commerce.

10. Involvement of members of college advisory committees in discussions with new faculty of their role and perceptions of the college's role.

11. At Grand View College, Iowa, the vice president for academic affairs hosted presentations and discussion groups at his home.

12. Chabot College, California, has an "armchair tour" with photographic slides.

13. Danville Junior College, Illinois, produces a "Know-Your-Trustees" bulletin.

14. At Marshalltown Community College, Iowa, the Chamber of Commerce hosts a breakfast for new faculty.

15. Members of the orientation committee may take the new faculty on tours of the community.

16. Orientation to the community at Lehigh County Community College, Pennsylvania, is provided by the college's women's club.

* * *

Goal II: To enable the new faculty member to be a growing, professional teacher and to comprehend the variability of students' intellectual characteristics, background, and certain non-intellectual factors that, as research on junior college students indicates, can either enhance or negate their performance.

Premises: New faculty, particularly those who have never taught in a two-year college, have minimal knowledge of the abilities, needs, and interests of junior college students. Seldom are they aware of the socioeconomic backgrounds and life styles of their students and the implications these have for success or failure in the teacher-student relationship and the resultant learning. Furthermore, new faculty can be alerted to the special needs of adult learners in the junior colleges; and the implications of the open-door policy should be explained and justified.

Events.

1. A student panel on expectations and responsibilities of students was presented by the Seattle Community College District.

2. Yuba College, California, took new faculty on a tour of Beale Air Force Base to help them better understand the environment of the many students from that installation.

3. The roles many of the students would be assuming was explained to new faculty at Delaware Technical and Community College by representatives of local industries.

4. One phase of the orientation program at the College of DuPage in Illinois was entitled "A Student-centered Orientation."

5. Group discussions on the junior college student were conducted at Jefferson State Junior College, Alabama.

6. An in-depth study of student characteristics followed by faculty discussion was presented at Tarrant County College, Texas.

7. A presentation on the nature of leadership and the dynamics of groups was accompanied by group sensitivity training at State School of Science in North Dakota.

8. A former studient at Ellsworth Community College, Iowa, presented the students' view to new faculty.

9. Students were included in a panel discussion that was organized at Staten Island Community College, New York. The topic was "SICC Faces the Student-University Crises."

10. Wytheville Community College, Virginia, uses the "buddy system" during the scheduling of advisees.

11. At the University of Minnesota State Technical College, students visit faculty in their homes during orientation.

* * *

Goal III: To describe and demonstrate to the new faculty member the full range of his role responsibilities both in and outside of the classroom.

Premises: Traditional methods of teaching college students are not totally effective with the broad range of students found in the two-year colleges, and the faculty member's responsibility involves much more than just teaching a particular subject in a classroom. There is a need to recognize the interrelationship between the college and the community, and implication for the faculty's role therein, as well as a need to comprehend the total instructional program of the college and the philosophy on which it is based. An understanding of the relationship between individual faculty and the college in terms of teaching load, salary and benefits, governance, and retention and promotion is crucial.

Events.

1. Harrisburg Area Community College, Pennsylvania, conducts a panel discussion on the topic, "Doing Our Thing: Teaching."

2. Tarrant County Junior College District, Texas, has set aside time in its program for individual faculty preparation, which is based on the needs of individuals, departments, and divisions.

3. Luzerne County Community College, Pennsylvania, uses a panel format for much of its orientation. Included as topics for panel discussions are: "Student Profile: An Instructor's Point of View," "Role of the Faculty Advisor," and "Cross-Curricular Open Forum."

4. Chabot College, California, conducts a series of workshops, using topics selected by faculty members such as instructional objectives, discussion group techniques, and community agencies.

5. Chabot College also conducts two "know-the-community" bus tours.

6. A task for new faculty at Norman College, Georgia, is to list twenty of what they consider to be the *most basic* concepts their division would like each graduating student to be familiar with.

7. A panel of instructors at Catawba Valley Technical Institute in North Carolina discusses ways and methods of improving instruction.

8. The objectives for faculty members during the pre-semester program at Mount Vernon Junior College, Washington, D.C., are to: (a) design a system for production of an individualized package; (b) determine criteria, evaluation, and objectives for the package; and (c) outline a learning strategy for the package.

9. North Shore Community College, Massachusetts, uses a panel-discussion format to cover a broad number of questions that touch on many critical orientation topics. Audience participation follows the panel discussion.

10. Instructors employed in the Trade and Technical Division at North Dakota State School of Science who have had no teaching experience are given both pre- and in-service training on teaching methods.

* * *

Goal IV: To make the new faculty member and his family as comfortable as possible in their new environment.

Premises: The personal and family comfort of a new job aspirant has a decided effect on his work performance.

Events.

1. A handbook with photographs and biographies of all new faculty was used by New Mexico State University.

2. Del Mar College, Texas, has a luncheon and tour for new faculty and their spouses.

3. A buffet for faculty and their spouses is sponsored by Mobile State Junior College (Alabama). "(The buffet) . . . is planned with the idea that direct communication can be established among members of our college community and that it will serve as a springboard for a closely knit and functioning family . . . ."

4. Mercer County Community College in New Jersey has conducted a brief orientation for the wives of new faculty. Staff discusses what the community college is and attempts to answer the questions that many of the women have about the college — especially because it may not fit their stereotyped idea of "college." Opportunity is also provided for wives of current faculty and administrators to welcome the newcomers to the college community.

EVALUATING THE ORIENTATION PROGRAM

There are at least three ways to evaluate orientation programs: (1) pre-post testing — to measure the candidates' attitudes about the community college and the environment for teaching before and after the orientation period; (2) personal critiques — wherein participants are asked to evaluate the orientation program either immediately following a session or at a later time during the year; and (3) evaluation by observation of performance — individuals, operating either singly or as part of a team, can offer judgments about the adaptability of the new faculty member in terms of satisfactory performance of his role.

Pre-Post Testing. In a number of orientation programs an attempt has been made to measure changes in attitudes or changes in the amount of knowledge a new faculty member has about the two-year college. At William Rainey Harper College (Illinois) (28:8-10 and Appendix), a pre-post test survey of faculty attitudes was developed for use with the charter faculty group. A modified version of this scale was also used by the orientation team of the Professional Development Project, and the feedback from both of these programs revealed significant *positive* movement in new faculty's attitudes. The question can be raised, however, as to whether some of the responses were mere intellectual exercises, an agreement with what candidates expected they should believe, or whether they indicated acceptance of new views about the two-year college.

Although this type of measure does have limitations, it is a source of feedback that can provide a great deal of information to program planners. In addition, a summary of the responses, presented at a final session in the formal orientation period, can be an excellent basis for planning an ensuing developmental program and can modify future orientation approaches.

Personal Critiques. Participant evaluation of the orientation program can be especially valuable in gauging the effectiveness of many structural elements, as well as the general acceptability of the program to the participants and the value of various program events or activities. Catawba Valley Technical Institute, North Carolina, has an evaluation of this type. Each orientation activity is rated by the participants, and a summary page asks general questions about the program, requesting additional comments from the participants:

1. What is your opinion of the theme for the workshop?
2. What is your opinion of the workshop in general?

3. Do you think CVTI will have a better instruction program because of this workshop?

4. What subjects do you feel should have been discussed and were not?

5. What should be the theme for next year's workshop?

6. Would you like to serve on a committee to plan next year's workshop? (Sign your name if your answer is "yes.")

7. Is this your first In-Service Workshop at CVTI?

8. Please make any additional comments that you would like to make regarding this year's workshop or next year's workshop.

A similar approach is used by Eastern Iowa Community College. Excerpts from their evaluation form will give a general idea of the format:

1. Was the general arrangement of the program satisfactory, i.e., two main addresses followed by a discussion period at the tables?

2. Would you like more time for meetings of faculty by subject matter field?

An even more open-ended evaluation procedure is to ask for essay responses from the participants. Antelope Valley College, California, requests a "reaction paper" from all program participants. The PDP group requested written reactions from the participants eight weeks after they had been in their new positions.

The Miami-Dade Junior College Center for Community Development uses an "instant evaluation" in its orientation program, in which the participants criticize the week's orientation schedule in light of the remarks of the opening speakers. Modifications can thus be made immediately. The final evaluation is small group discussions on the subject of "Where do we go from here?"

One problem with such devices is that it is difficult to know when to time the critiques. If one waits too long, the participants may have forgotten their initial reactions to certain elements of the program — reacions which could be very significant to the planning group. If an immediate evaluation is requested, the planners cannot be clear as to the long-range effectiveness of the program; at an early point, new faculty may not be able to judge what is relevant and what is not. Furthermore, discussion results often go unrecorded, and if this is the only measure used, the evaluation is altered by time and perception. The most appropriate way to evaluate is probably to use a combination of immediate and delayed assessments,

Evaluation by Observation. Evaluating the program by its product — the functioning of the faculty member — is perhaps the most problematic of the three methods. It is impossible to isolate the factors that may influence the faculty member's performance: his employment, background, academic preparation, emotional needs, and many other factors are contagions in this type of assessment. There is, in fact, no basis for measurement since even spelling out the faculty performance to be evaluated does not allow an accurate assessment as there is no pre-measurement to determine the individual's base-point. Moraine Valley Community College in Illinois has, however, attempted to formulate its orientation objectives in behavioral terms. Three of the objectives of its in-service education program are:

1. Staff will exhibit a learner-oriented attitude.
2. Students will be more successful and satisfied as a result of changes in the faculty.
3. Staff will use a variety of instructional modes.

Ken Guy, Dean of Community Services at Harford Junior College, Maryland, has proposed behavioral objectives for an orientation program. These are summarized as follows:

> At the completion of this program of instruction, the new faculty member will be able to explain and diagram the organizational structure of Harford Junior College and will be able to state its philosophy. He will be able to identify and describe the retirement and fringe benefits available to the faculty member and will be able to describe Harford County in terms of its population, economic and cultural composition, and the organization of its local government. The new faculty member will be able to design a course of study, being explicit about the major course objectives as well as subordinate course objectives in terms of behavioral outcomes. He will be able to describe or outline the procedures for curriculum changes and/or implementation and will be able to describe and define a philosophy of a comprehensive community college.

All of these are objectives that most institutions acknowledge, although too few colleges make the necessary effort to define their orientation objectives in such explicit terms.

SUMMARY

The model that has been presented for new faculty orientation has the following general characteristics:

1. Planning utilizes a comprehensive team of people who have a direct influence and day-to-day impact on the functioning of the new faculty member.
2. The orientation program is viewed in the perspective of an overall professional development plan, spaced over the initial time period most critical to the new faculty member's career transition — the first year.
3. Four basic goals are offered as worthy of imaginative and focused effort by the planning team and the program leadership.
4. The program leadership is non-hierarchical.
5. Evaluation is perceived as part of a process of further planning and improvement.
6. Orientation is viewed as a process balanced between the need for local indoctrination and a socialization to the environment of the junior college.

ORIENTATION TO WHAT?

chapter 6

The general premise of this monograph is that orientation is a process that facilitates the role transition and career socialization of people from diverse backgrounds into community and junior college teaching. It is also a short-term strategy that functions to partially fill a vacuum created by the lack of adequate preparation programs for junior college faculty. Orientation remains, and will remain, a useful means of matching faculty needs for personal and occupationally relevant information with the institutional demands for efficiency of operation.

While the situation is certain to change in the next ten years, anyone reviewing the work-world of the junior college at that time will probably still reserve mild comment for any model of orientation that is totally divorced from preparation patterns. Yet, we expect that orientation viewed as a binding technique will gradually become enmeshed in the concept of professional two-year college faculty preparation. What this implies for actual orientation programs is difficult to assess. The changing conditions will necessitate an orientation/socialization process attuned to different sets of demands, some created by changing institutions and some dictated by changing personnel; socialization will remain an important factor in the entry of new members into an organization. Therefore, although the content of orientations may change, the basic structure and approach we have proposed could be adapted to any new conditions. Thus, the primary question is not "What will orientations be?" but instead, "Orientation to what?"

THE DEMAND FOR FACULTY

The marketplace for almost 1,050 two-year colleges (currently employing about 85,000 full- and part-time faculty as well as 11,000 administrators) is becoming increasingly visible. More than 20,000 junior college vacancies are expected to be available each year for the next several years, an estimate which takes into account both the new positions and the turnover rate of about 15 per cent.

The public two-year colleges in New York State, for example, will need almost 2,000 new faculty each year during the period 1970-1976. The urgency of this situation has compelled the authors of the Nelson Report (37) to recommend that:

> The central administrations of both the city and state universities should take steps to establish master's degree programs designed specifically for the pre-service training of two-year college faculty. Such programs should be established at a minimum of six senior colleges or university centers of the State University and three senior colleges of the City University with intial enrollment goals of at least one hundred students in each program. Such programs would begin to supply perhaps one-half of the annual number of faculty needed in the two-year colleges.

A total of the definable, formalized junior college faculty preparation programs that are legitimately classified and operating as such can, however, produce only about 300 professionally qualified candidates each year. (A massive effort to establish professional two-year college faculty preparation programs would be the only way to supply the number of appropriately socialized faculty members needed.) This is not to say that there will be a shortage of qualified applicants; rather there will probably be a lack of philosophically "tuned in" candidates. Cadres of new faculty from many, as yet untapped, sources may present themselves to the college as candidates for teaching positions, but it is unlikely that these candidates will be automatically compatible with the aims of the institution.

A cursory review of orientation and preparation literature also suggests that the junior college may be burdened with some timidity about departing from tried and true models of teacher preparation. Yet some junior college leaders do recognize the fact that little evidence exists to support the traditional internship concept deployed in secondary school teacher preparation.

THE ROLE OF GRADUATE SCHOOLS OF EDUCATION

The small number of deliberately designed programs for two-year college faculty preparation is not due entirely to a lack of interest on the part of senior institutions. However, those who teach in four-year colleges and universities must come to realize that their fate is inexorably tied to the quality of the two-year college educational effort. This situation is partly a function of the shortage of four-year college and university faculty who have first-hand experience in the environment of the junior college or have witnessed the special issues confronting junior college instructors. Interest is increasing, however, and is gradually overcoming the skepticism of upper division faculty who were initially hostile to the idea. Each day the two-year college assumes more educational stability and legitimacy. Growing professional interest is sanctioned by faculty members' concern with the content of introductory courses, the quality of available teachers in fast-moving disciplines, and the fact that more and more students are transferring from junior colleges to four-year colleges and universities.

One new approach for training two-year college faculty is being proposed by the Union for Research and Experimentation in Higher Education, a consortium of colleges and universities centered at Antioch. In an EPDA-funded study, Edward Cohen, former director of two-year colleges in New Jersey, proposed a new model of graduate training centers to prepare community college faculty. The study proposes that the centers themselves reflect in many ways the setting in which the students will later be teaching — the community college. Thus the centers must "prefigure" the structure, learning style, and the counseling emphasis of two-year institutions. (They become, in effect, a textbook.) The program will emphasize the following substantive elements in its training program and in the pedagogical style it will engender:

1. Adoption of Bloom's "learning for mastery" concept
2. Reorganization of the curricula along societal issues and cross-disciplinary lines, especially in introductory courses
3. The college as community (the whole affective domain of learning).

Organization of the academic program will stress multiple entry and exit points: programs beginning as early as the junior year and continuing for most students through the master's level — and for some, through to the doctorate; a one-year supervised internship in community colleges; and an extensive in-service program.

In order to serve the more than three million junior college students in the next decade, two-year colleges will have to be formally linked, in cooperative ways, with all levels of higher education. Examples might be:

1. Regional support systems for faculty preparation that will join two-year colleges with four-year colleges and/or four-year colleges with universities
2. Regionalism in reference to recruitment, preparation, and in-service faculty development
3. Establishment of joint faculty appointments on more than a token basis and joint participation in both research and experimental projects
4. Cluster relationships between various institutions that provide new contexts for focus on the quality of undergraduate teaching in both two-year colleges and four-year colleges
5. Fresh curricular alignments between the first years of college in *any* type of higher education institution with the programs in the upper division.

Where public two-year colleges are recognized for their distinct role in a system of higher education (e.g., California and Florida), a variety of institutional agreements may prosper.

ORIENTATION FOR THE SEVENTIES: SOME CONSIDERATIONS

The following propositions have evolved out of the authors' discussions with community and junior college faculty and administrators. They are also the results of reflection following on-site visits with private and public two-year college staff in Florida, Michigan, North Carolina, New York, Iowa, Maryland, Maine, Massachusetts, Oklahoma, New Jersey, and Puerto Rico.

Opportunities to test certain of these proposals before a group of knowledgeable faculty have occurred at various meetings — including the first "Seminar for Master Teachers in the Community-Junior College" held at Westbrook Junior College, Maine, during the summer of 1969. At that time, veteran faculty from twenty-two states engaged in a spectrum of discussion regarding not only the present but also the future of the work situation in the community-junior college.

Graduate students from community colleges are in a position to provide an "on the firing line" perspective; their concurrent analysis is also included in this chapter.

The propositions presented here are neither prophecy nor conjecture; rather, they are calculated assertions which we trust will be confirmed by time. In terms of designing and implementing new faculty orientation programs during the present decade, we need to ask:

1. Who will be teaching in the junior-community college?
2. Who will be attending the two-year college?
3. What types of programs will the college offer?
4. What will the college be like?

I. *Who will be teaching in the community-junior college?*

1. The generalist-teacher will be supported by a core of specialists.

Achieving a broader range of intellectual ability and motivational force among the student population in the two-year college requires the supporting activity of a new cadre of specialists. Some of these are beginning to be identified on college staffs as *Instructional Assistance Specialists, Instructional Resources Specialists, Media Specialists,* and *Computer Assisted Instruction Specialists.* These individuals are knowledgeable about a variety of assistance strategies by which the achievement of certain educational objectives can be related to certain content requirements. They are emerging as separate, equal, and necessary components of an effective professional teaching staff, usually serving as in-house consultants. Evidence of their educational recognition and market value is the upsurge of special workshops and seminars to introduce the general faculty to the role of technological tools in the total educational picture.

A *Curriculum Specialist* may function as a catalyst, assisting willing faculty in developing imaginative courses and programs that are compatible with the interests of students and institutional purpose; such a specialist could immeasurably enhance the unique identity of the junior-community college. A further useful role would be to act as a curricular link between what the two-year college program is attempting to accomplish and what the upper-division college perceives as part of the ongoing educational program.

The junior college, if truly responsive to an open-door philosophy, will need a core of learning specialists who have been trained to communicate effectively with those students for whom the present educational system is almost a total loss: the *Remedial and/or Developmental Specialists.*

The *Community College Research or Development Specialist* is another role to consider. Without detracting from the major priority given to teaching, there is some evidence that people in community colleges would like to accomplish their own research in a professionally competent manner. Special programs, such as the one initiated by the Regional Education Laboratory for the Carolinas and Virginia, under John Roueche's direction, attest to this trend. An "in-house" researcher could provide faculty with pertinent data on what is being retained in the classroom, evaluation of innovative approaches, and accumulation of an on-going data bank for all staff members to use.

2. The major source of new junior-community college faculty will be the graduate school, and furthermore, there will be an increasingly wide range of sources.

One of the characteristics of present junior college faculty is the fact that instructors who have had previous teaching experience have usually taught in secondary schools. A significant change in the next decade may be the amalgamation of individuals who have had almost no teaching experience or have had experience from a variety of places other than the secondary school. Three groups will contribute to this roster: retired military personnel; married women, age 35-50, whose college career was interrupted and who are ready to reenter the work force on a professional level; and Ph.D.'s who formerly would have by-passed the junior college but now recognize its career potential.

Fred Hechinger (22), noting a present slow-down in the Ph.D. marketplace, particularly in the fields of English, history, foreign languages, and mathematics, has stated that:

> For some students, the situation may lead to a reassessment of attitudes based on the expectation of personal economic security and almost unlimited options . . . an immediate benefit might be the staffing of the junior college, the most rapidly growing sector of higher education, with better teachers.

Graduates of two-year colleges who decide on a teaching career and who identify appropriate educational channels after transfer to an upper division unit, may culminate their program with a faculty appointment to a junior college.

3. Federal programs will provide a major impetus for large numbers of junior-community college teacher preparation programs.

When the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare first introduced the Education Professions Development Act (EPDA) for Congressional debate in 1967, a major purpose had to do with stimulating senior colleges and universities to plan special institutes for two-year college faculty. Now, three years later, hundreds of such institutes have been funded and a few long-range development programs can be traced to this impetus. It is anticipated that new federal legislation, together with specific directives from state education departments, state boards of higher education, and community college coordinating agencies, will accomplish the goal of institutionalizing such programs.

II. *Who will be attending the community-junior college?*

1. Within ten years, a majority of the students who enter higher education for the first time will enter via the two-year college.

According to United States Office of Education data, two out of every seven college students in the United States are attending a junior college, and among the first-time enrollees in higher education, four out of ten are in two-year institutions. In some states, a majority of *all* the students in post-secondary institutions are in two-year colleges. Thus it would appear that a greater burden of responsibility will be placed on the junior-community college for initial college work. This is viewed as both economically* and educationally sound. Enrollment in two-year colleges is currently increasing at twice the rate of enrollment in other institutions of higher education.

2. Educationally disadvantaged students will form a larger proportion of the student body in public community colleges.

The junior-community college — which nationally is primarily a rural institution — has yet to demonstrate its real commitment to educationally disadvantaged students. Black students, for example, find no urban community college in several of our country's largest cities. New York City, Chicago, and Los Angeles, on the other hand, do serve substantial segments of the disadvantaged. The college itself is not wholly a first choice for some of the educational minorities, but new forces are operating to bring the junior college into a more valid position. Special career legislation, fuller recognition by parents and high school counselors of the value of an associate degree, and the visibility of a specially geared program staffed by appropriate personnel are factors that will function to bring the two-year college more clearly into view.

3. Larger proportions of the student body will be made up of part-time students attending classes on a round-the-clock and year-round basis.

Although many two-year colleges are increasing their services for part-time students, this is still a neglected group. An example of this factor is the negligible amount of financial aid available to part-time students. These students come and go; half of them many be new to the college each semester, and most colleges do not know why they come or why they leave. However, the number of part-time students increases all the time — for instance, enrollment of housewives filling un-used hours, urban blacks attempting to improve themselves, technicians keeping abreast of their field, and veterans who must work as well as go to school to supplement their G.I. Bill income. In the future, part-time students may even consist of workers whose union contract includes reimbursement for educational expenses, teachers' aides who are working for associate degrees, supervisors from local plants who go to management workshops, and even graveyard shift workers who attend college in the early morning hours.

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* Several economic features come to mind. Ralph Tyler has noted that the per capita annual cost of the education of undergraduates in four-year colleges and universities is two to five times that of the junior colleges. Tax-minded legislators are becoming alert to such observations.

4. The two-year college may become a special focus for veterans who are re-entering civilian life.

A grant from the Carnegie Corporation to the American Association of Junior Colleges will put into operation a program to insure that channels are open between the military and two-year colleges. It has been reported that 900,000 men and women are discharged each year from military service, and special programs are thus being developed to give pre-discharge orientation as well as provide effective cooperation with various agencies to help veterans make a smooth transition.

III. *What types of programs will the college offer?*

1. Career and occupational programs will make up the largest proportion of the curricular offering of the junior-community college.

Programs related to health and various services are growing rapidly. The American Association of Junior College's *Occupational Education Bulletin* lists new occupational programs each month, and as these programs are institutionalized, there is a need for short-term, intensively focused courses for special groups. The enrollment of students is not the only way to test the viability of such programs since it has been estimated that enrollment in career, as compared to transfer, programs varies greatly from one state to another. In New York state, for example, more students graduate in career programs than in transfer programs, but in some states it is the exact opposite.

2. Special courses, curricula, and programs for adults under the aegis of the *continuing education* concept will keep pace with career efforts.

Former United States Commissioner of Education, James E. Allen, Jr., in an address delivered in late 1969 to the National Council of State Directors of the Community-Junior College, stressed the potential for community colleges to develop vocational skills for people of all ages. Similarly, Robert H. Finch, former Health, Education, and Welfare Secretary, has underlined the continuing education function of post-secondary career education in the junior college. The New Career concept exemplifies this area of concern.

3. A realignment of the major functions of the community college will occur.

There is some evidence already to indicate that the historically dominant transfer function of the community college is being overshadowed by the increasing usefulness of the career/occupational function. Furthermore, transfer and career programs are becoming more interrelated, and opportunities for students to move easily from one area to another are growing, as are opportunities for career students to transfer.

4. The transfer function will stabilize but will continue to be only one of several important roles for the college.

The students who transfer do not constitute a majority of all those served by the community college. Actual transfer rates are extremely difficult to pin down, although a rough estimate is that on a national scale, between 20 and 25 per cent of all who begin in community colleges actually transfer. (This does not take into consideration just the *graduates* of the colleges.)

5. The community service function of the comprehensive community college will assume increasing importance.

From its confused beginnings in adult education and public relations work, through recent influences of community development programs, the community service function has been relatively undefined. Currently, there are a number of forces at work that will alter the situation, including the establishment of a National Council on Community Services by the American Association of Junior Colleges. Community service has always been considered a part of the college's role, but it is now becoming institutionalized as a separate and distinct administrative function. The focus on adult evening classes is being replaced by an emphasis on broad community development, which implies vast changes in the outreach of the college.

6. Junior college transfer programs will be more clearly linked with their counterparts in colleges offering upper division work.

Closer curricular ties are taking shape in the development of special projects that engage the cooperative efforts of various institutions. An example of this is the National Science Foundation's COSIP program which encourages curricular and teaching partnerships between two-year and four-year colleges.

7. Career and occupational programs will be more extensively linked with industry, labor, and certain professional areas.

By the end of the 1960's, institutions of higher education had only begun to tap the possibilities of learning and laboratory relationships between formalized instruction and experience in actual work situations. New Careers is one example of this approach and is, in part, generated by the increasing cost of hardware and the rapidity with which college faculty lose touch with innovations in technology. We may well see the development of closer industrial-college ties that would result in the sharing of both human and physical resources.

IV. *What will the community-junior college be like?*

1. Junior colleges will invariably be a part of every metropolitan area in the United States.

Already there is pressure to locate more of the new junior college campuses in urban environments, and as the population becomes more and more urbanized, colleges will be an even more important aspect of the educational scene. It is also possible that some cities, and/or regions, will set up special-focus colleges (a hybrid of the comprehensive model), and some areas may establish urban colleges of technology based on the urban center concept.

2. Regional associations of two-year colleges, utilizing a broader support structure than the multi-campus concept, may serve many sections of the country that would not otherwise be reached.

Aside from considerations of financial and technological advantage, the concept of regionalism implies an in-depth educational service that is just beginning to be recognized at the start of this new decade. Some regional clusters of colleges could become part of an educational center that provides temporary domiciles for students who are too far from home. Perhaps the regional concept will even support a cadre of "mobile professors" who reside with one learning team and then another. A further trend will be the centralization of established and new systems of community colleges, especially statewide systems. California now has a separate office for two-year colleges, and New Jersey and Maryland are developing central, statewide departments concerned with community and junior colleges.

3. While total institutional size will be maintained at a reasonable level, class size will increase.

The median enrollment for all public two-year colleges in 1967-68 was less than 1,500 students; less than a fourth of the colleges had over 3,000 students. It is doubtful, however, that these totals will hold for the decade of the seventies. The subject of class size is continuously being disputed, although some evidence indicates that mastery of the subject matter, as measured by traditional tests, is not influenced by the number of people in the class (9). Increasing costs bring in the question of efficiency, and the constant cry for increased salaries, fewer teaching hours, and smaller classes will have to be tempered by increasing effectiveness and more economical ways to teach greater numbers of students.

4. Attendance patterns will change dramatically as students drop in and drop out of the educational institution.

This particular observation probably holds true for all kinds of educational settings, and there are various reasons for these changes, such as the fact that many students who now attend college (at any level) might not be there if they had other alternatives from which to choose. New learning arrangements — for instance, work-and-study partnerships — will illuminate fresh sets of possibilities for reaching credential status and achieving educational goals. We are rapidly realizing that college is not simply a two- or four-year experience, and the notion of education as a *continuing process* is now being accepted: a student may attend any one institution for a short period of time, as various interruptions may occur in his educational career.

Former Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare, Robert Finch, has observed that there may be a relationship between the college students' call for relevance in this decade and the pervasiveness of student discontent. As he observed in a speech prepared for an industrial conference in New York in November 1969,

> Beyond the immediate benefits of the affluent society, and beyond a deep sensitivity to the existence of social problems, I sense that students of this generation do not possess varied models, ready at hand, for a career meaningful to them.
>
> If this is really the case — if they do not now aspire to traditional business and professional careers — relevant education is, in many senses, an impossible burden for any educational institution to deliver. There exists no model for them to measure relevancy against. *How much better it might be to permit easier transition into and out of the academic community at many points in a student's life.* How much better it would be were he able to measure his life goals and academic mission against concrete work experience in a chosen, but temporary, vocation.

One of the factors indicated by study of public junior-community college environments is that students have a minimum of out-of-class or campus experiences as they pursue the associate degree. It is doubtful that changes will be made in this area. And, in fact, attempts to change may be useless and may have little consequence for the students' learning experiences.

5. There exists the possibility that two-year colleges and four-year colleges will jointly pursue systematic discovery of learning and communication strategies that will affect teaching quality in all aspects of higher education.

The community college, with its spontaneous focus on the importance of good teaching, is a natural working laboratory for systematic studies of effective teaching techniques. It could be the place where attempts are made to discover new ways to communicate, rather than the place where traditional ways are maintained. Two-year colleges might openly embrace a clinical approach to communication which might eventually have a strong impact on all undergraduate education.

INTO THE FUTURE

Before the decade of the seventies closes, two-year colleges probably will outnumber four-year colleges and universities, enrolling at least as many students and employing as many faculty members and administrators. It does, however, remain to be seen whether their impact on the total system of higher education in this country will reflect more than mere numbers. As community-junior colleges come to be more widely accepted by parents of college-bound young people — parents who in 1970 still tend to think primarily in terms of four-year colleges and universities — the idea of wanting their sons and daughters to attend only certain colleges may be supplanted by the realization that a *wide* variety of possibilities is open to high school graduates — not just college, and not just a four-year stint at one particular institution to attain a B.A. degree.

The existence of the community-junior college is accepted as a fact by instructors and students, but the general public has yet to be convinced of the real value and worth of this institution. There is some danger, however, in the growing visibility of the two-year colleges, in that the *distinctive* role, character, and identity of these colleges could be diminished if other types of institutions began usurping too many of their functions. Career and occupational programs may, therefore, provide the primary philosophical *raison d'être* for the two-year college. Orientation programs and all types of faculty preparation programs should devote particular and special attention to the elusive but unique ambience of junior colleges.

APPENDIX

WILLIAM RAINEY HARPER COLLEGE PRE-POST ATTITUDE TEST

THE NATURE AND PURPOSES OF OUR COMMUNITY JUNIOR COLLEGE

(Survey conducted before and after orientation session)

CODE:
SA — Strongly agree
A — Agree
N — Not sure
D — Disagree
SD — Strongly disagree

	SA	A	N	D	SD
1. Our community-junior college is essentially the same as a university extension.					
2. Our technical and vocational programs are striving to meet the technical and vocational needs of our community.					
3. A community-junior college teaching position is identical in scope and emphasis to a teaching position at a senior college or university.					
4. Adult education is not one of the basic functions of a community-junior college.					
5. The standards of higher education make it mandatory in this institution that all programs be secondary to the transfer program.					
6. The two-year career programs are vital in our community-junior college in order to discharge its education obligation to the youth of the area effectively.					

	SA	A	N	D	SD
7. It is unrealistic and unsound educational policy for our community-junior college to attempt to provide post-high school programs for varying ability levels.					
8. Community service is not one of the major obligations of our institution.					
9. Our community-junior college provides the opportunity for acquiring education beyond high school to a broader segment of the community than other types of institutions.					
10. The extension of educational opportunity through provisions for remedial work is a responsibility of our community-junior college.					
11. Our institution should be comprehensive and meet as many of the advanced education needs as possible of its constituent students.					
12. Our community may reasonably expect the presence of a community-junior college to raise the general educational level in the community.					
13. This community-junior college should provide realistic programs for a variety of social and economic levels.					
14. Community service and participation is not an individual staff obligation.					
15. Our community-junior college must be concerned with the social and academic acceptance in its programs of students from all socioeconomic classes.					
16. A community-junior college is more of a local ornament than visible guarantee that more youngsters in the community will receive a college education.					
17. Our community-junior college is nearer secondary school than higher education in outlook and program.					
18. The adult education program offered in this college is an indication of institutional orientation to community service.					

	SA	A	N	D	SD
19. The vocational and technical manpower needs of this community are the concern of our community-junior college and should be reflected in its programs.					
20. A community-junior college is primarily a "teaching institution," therefore faculty research has a much lower priority than in the senior college or university.					
21. Our community-junior college is primarily an educational institution and should not become involved in special services to the student (e.g., job placement and assistance with personal problems).					
22. The wide variety of programs available in our institution offers the student who does not succeed in one a good chance of finding another better suited to his talents and interests.					
23. Vocational, technical, and liberal arts programs located in the same institution provide an opportunity for a student to more readily and realistically adjust his goals.					
24. Remedial courses for the deficient student are not a legitimate concern of our institution.					
25. We find our standards lowered by the mixture of academically and otherwise oriented students.					
26. Student academic counseling by individual instructors is both possible and highly desirable in this community-junior college.					
27. Our community-junior college is available for those who cannot qualify at other institutions.					
28. Learning opportunities for students not motivated toward the usual academic subjects are an appropriate part of our curriculum.					
29. Proximity of our instruction to students' homes reduces financial burden and sometimes makes education available that would be inaccessible otherwise.					

	SA	A	N	D	SD
30. Intercollegiate athletics has no place in a community-junior college.					
31. The implementation of innovative technology in administration and instruction should be a responsibility of the comprehensive junior college.					
32. Vocational guidance by professionally trained counselors is more important in a community-junior college than in any other institution of higher education.					
33. Academic advising should be done by trained counselors who have adequate preparation and time to spend studying the continually changing vocational and educational world.					
34. Course selection is basically the students' responsibility in a community-junior college and, therefore, the college need not make extensive provisions for aiding the student in this area.					
35. Conducting research and pilot programs in the uses of new media and technology in education is a function of the comprehensive junior college.					

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